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This Issue in Brief

Governmental Labor Activity, 1913–38.

THE United States Department of Labor on March 4, 1938, closes its first quarter century as an executive department of the United States Government. It was created at a time when the activities of governments in the interest of the workers were shifting from study of economic conditions to organizing machinery for regulation and to laying the ground work for broad social movements. In the intervening 25 years the work of the Department of Labor has expanded greatly, and numerous other agencies of the Federal Government now share with it the duty of carrying out the Federal program concerning workers. Corresponding expansion has taken place in State governments, through State departments of labor and industrial commissions administering and enforcing a greatly increased volume of legislation dealing with working conditions and industrial relations. Page 297.

Minimum Wages for Sugar-Beet Workers.

WORKING and living conditions among laborers in the sugar-beet fields have long been recognized as being among the worst in industrial employment in the United States. The work is characterized by extremely low annual incomes, obtained from intermittent periods of intensive labor of whole families, by scarcity of supplementary work during off-seasons, and by widespread dependence of beet workers upon public relief during the winter months. By a Federal act of September 1937, Government benefits to growers of sugar beets and sugarcane were made contingent upon payment of minimum wage rates to be set by the Secretary of Agriculture as fair and reasonable, and on nonemployment of children. Page 322.

Hours Provided in Collective Agreements.

A 40-HOUR maximum workweek is provided in a large majority of the union agreements now in effect in the United States. In several industries the maximum set by agreement is less than 40 hours, namely, the glass industry, with a 36-hour week for all but continuous processes; coal mining and fur manufacture, with a general 35-hour maximum; men's clothing, with a 36-hour week; women's clothing, with a prevailing 35-hour week; and newspaper publishing, where approximately two-thirds of the workers are on a working week of less than 40 hours. In retail-trade agreements, on the other hand, the 48-hour week predominates, and in such service industries as hotels and barbering the agreements frequently permit of a 60-hour and even longer workweek. Page 341.

Census of the Unemployed.

IN THE National Unemployment Census of November 16–20, 1937, the voluntary registration of the unemployed totaled 7,822,912, of whom 2,001,877 were emergency relief workers. Among the 7,822,912 unemployed were 1,996,699 females. The enumerative test census which followed the voluntary registration indicated that this registration was only 72 percent complete. Allowing for such a variation would give a maximum total of 10,870,000 who considered themselves as unemployed. Persons who registered as partly employed and wanting more work numbered 3,209,211, including 567,551 females. The voluntary registration of the partly unemployed was only 57 percent complete, according to the subsequent test census. Page 355.

Decline in Lead Poisoning.

ONE of the most encouraging signs of progress in industrial sanitation and public health is the marked decline which has taken place in the occurrence of fatal lead poisoning in this and other countries. In the United States, the rate has declined from 2.5 deaths per million of population in 1900–1904 to 1.0 death per million in 1936, or 60 percent. Similar downward trends are shown for a number of other countries. The decline in industrial lead poisoning in this country is largely the result of improvement in sanitary conditions in factories, but is also due to the improved economic condition of the workmen, who receive higher wages, work shorter hours, and present a decidedly better type of physique than the workers of earlier years. Page 420.

Cooperative Telephones, 1936.

MORE than 460,000 subscribers were estimated to have utilized the services of cooperative telephone associations in 1936. This estimate was reached in a study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in which it was found that this type of cooperative association was particularly numerous in the rural areas of the Middle West. The organizations varied widely in size, ranging from groups of some half dozen members, owning a single party line, upward to organizations of several thousand persons serving a whole county. Although telephone operation does not appear to be a field of business offering any great possibility of much future expansion, cooperatively, associations now in operation are rendering a necessary service at very moderate cost. Page 392.

Limitations on Hours of Work of Men.

IN 1937, two States—Pennsylvania and North Carolina—enacted comprehensive laws regulating the hours of labor of men in private employment. Prior to that time, there had been little legislation of general applicability except in the case of certain unhealthy or hazardous trades. The Pennsylvania law places the limitations at 44 hours per week, 8 hours a day, and 5½ days per week. It does not apply to agricultural labor, domestic servants, or persons in higher-paid executive or professional work. The North Carolina law limits the hours of labor of men to 10 per day and 55 per week. There are, however, a number of exceptions and the law does not apply to an employer of 8 or fewer employees. An article in this issue (p. 462) reviews all existing legislation in the United States on the subject of hours of labor for men.

Paid Vacations in Latin America.

TWELVE of the twenty Latin-American Republics now have in force legislation providing annual vacations with pay for one or more classes of employees. These are Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Haiti, Mexico, Panama, Peru, Salvador, Uruguay, and Venezuela. In 7 of the countries both salaried and wage-earning employees are benefited, while in the remaining 5 countries protection is more restricted. Domestic servants are specifically covered in the legislation of Chile and Peru. Ordinarily the qualifying period is 1 year. Vcations vary from a minimum of 4 to 6 days in Mexico to 30 days or a month in certain instances in Argentina, Panama, and Peru. Page 378.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR FEBRUARY 1938

A QUARTER CENTURY OF GOVERNMENTAL LABOR ACTIVITY

By ESTELLE M. STEWART, *of the Bureau of Labor Statistics*

ON MARCH 4, 1913, President Taft, as his last official act as President of the United States, signed the bill creating the tenth executive department of the Government, the United States Department of Labor. The Department was to be under the administration of a member of the President's Cabinet, equal in rank and status with other executive branches of the Federal Government. On March 4, 1938, the Department of Labor thus closes its first quarter century of statutory existence, an occasion which makes peculiarly appropriate a review of the expansion and achievement in the entire field of Governmental activity, both State and National, in the interest of the American worker.

Rather more significance attaches to such a review, however, than the mere observance of the passing of a milestone that affords a convenient backward view. To a great degree President Taft's signing of the organic act creating a Federal agency devoted to the interests of American wage earners closed one era and opened another. Granting the element of arbitrariness in attaching dates to social movements, 1913 nevertheless stands out clearly in a backward view as a turning point in the movement to secure, through legislation and administrative public agencies, recognition of the rights and the needs of American workers and to take definite steps through those channels for the progressive improvement of working conditions and industrial relations.

Prior to 1913 agencies existed within the Federal Government for a limited degree of regulation and control of working conditions of specific classes of workers. In the larger industrial States regulatory labor laws, applying chiefly to women and children, were enforced by governmental bodies, but in general each type of law came under the administrative jurisdiction of an independent agency. But a great deal of the work of Federal and State Governments was in the direction

of fact-finding and exploratory trail-blazing through the ever-widening and increasingly complex social and industrial structure of a rapidly developing nation. Permanent fact-finding agencies existed in the bureaus of labor of the Federal Government and a large proportion of the States. Intensive surveys had been made by the Federal Government into the extent of employment and the working conditions of women and children, and into the social, industrial, and economic status of the immigrant population; and an exhaustive inquiry had been authorized into the underlying causes of industrial unrest and unsatisfactory industrial relations. Several States had set up commissions of inquiry into the problem of industrial accidents which had grown to proportions that demanded action, and some had enacted legislation for the compensation of injured workers and better control of work hazards.

As a social movement, however, all these efforts lacked direction and cohesiveness, and much of the legislation, particularly that dealing with workmen's compensation and minimum wages for women, was experimental. One of the important functions of the newly created Federal Department of Labor, as those who were prominent in securing its establishment saw it, was to correct this diffusion of effort and to coordinate and direct the scattered activities. Before a great deal could be accomplished, abnormal conditions produced first by the war in Europe and then by American entry into the World War had to be met, and governmental agencies to regulate and in some cases to control employment relations were created. Thus the focus of governmental activities in relation to the worker shifted from determining his status to regulating, in a measure, his conditions. The lessons that grew out of that experience were reflected in specific labor legislation and in the increase in the number and the responsibilities of administrative agencies during the years immediately following the World War. Successive developments which in their turn also tended to place upon government more and more concern for the welfare of the worker were industrial and technological expansion and change, the rapid shift from a national economy based on agriculture to one conditioned largely by industry, and, finally, depression and nation-wide unemployment and want.

During these 25 years of change the United States Department of Labor has expanded greatly. With the few antecedent governmental agencies also devoted to the interests of the worker, it has been joined by many others in the Federal Government serving the interests either of a special occupational group or of all groups in limited fields. Integrated departments of labor and other agencies in practically all States are now administering and enforcing the rapidly expanding volume of labor legislation that reflects the purpose of the American people to keep pace with change.

Governmental Labor Activities Before 1913

The first general demand upon governments by workers was for unbiased study and presentation of the actual conditions of hours, wages, safety, and health under which they were employed. This demand was met by creating bureaus of labor first in State governments, beginning in Massachusetts in 1869, and then in the Federal Government with the first Bureau of Labor, established in 1884, which became the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the new Department of Labor in 1913. This development was the result of an organized demand on the part of the Knights of Labor, which was successful to the point that by 1913 legislation had been enacted to create these fact-finding bodies in nearly three-fourths of the States. In the industrial States these were active agencies constantly assembling and presenting facts pertaining to working conditions upon which much of the early labor legislation was based.

Beginnings of State labor departments.

Enforcement of labor laws, before the movement for integrated State labor departments began about 1911, was either through existing agencies such as local school boards or police officers, or through separate agencies created to administer each type of law. Thus the laws establishing minimum wages for women and minors, for example, which were in operation in nine States in 1913, were administered by independent State bodies set up for that specific purpose.

Wisconsin launched the movement to center all State labor activities in one integrated State agency when it created its industrial commission in 1911. Massachusetts followed in 1912, with a statute establishing the State board of labor and industry which combined several functions but was still not all-inclusive. In 1913, New York reorganized its department of labor to include all activities in the interest of labor that fell within the province of the State at that time, and similar action was taken in Ohio and Kansas, and on a less comprehensive scale in Pennsylvania.

Early safety movements.

In certain other early activities of government in which workers' interests were involved, those interests were in fact incidental to the main purpose of the agency. In the case of railroad operation, the purpose was safety of the general public. The Interstate Commerce Commission was founded in 1887, but its regulatory authority over physical equipment and safety devices was not established until later, beginning with the law of 1893 dealing with automatic couplers. After that its control over safety hazards, hours, and working conditions was continuously and greatly extended. But it was not until 1914 that its activities in the interests of safety for the workers as

well as the traveling public were concentrated into one administrative unit, the Bureau of Safety.

First mediation board.

In 1898 under the terms of the Erdman Act, the Commissioner of Labor and the Chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission were assigned the additional function of acting as a medium for the mediation, or in certain cases, the arbitration, of disputes between carriers and their employees. This ex officio body was the first permanent agency in the Federal Government to deal with labor relations. It continued to function in that field when called upon until the United States Board of Mediation and Conciliation was created in 1913.

Health service for seamen.

Government had discharged one specific function with regard to seamen practically from the beginning of the Republic, when the first step was taken which led ultimately to the establishment of the United States Public Health Service. The first marine hospital founded, maintained, and operated by the United States Government, was opened in Norfolk, Va., in 1800. Seventy years later the many marine hospitals which followed it were brought under the unified control of a special agency under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of the Treasury. This agency later was made responsible also for the medical examination of immigrants. Other governmental activities dealing with seamen were concerned in a limited way with safety, through the steamboat inspection service, established in 1838, and with employment contracts and relations through the shipping commissioners who were placed in the Bureau of Navigation by a law of 1872. However, a much wider acceptance of governmental responsibility in the welfare of American seamen came with the passage of the Seaman's Act of 1915.

Welfare of miners.

Another special group of workers who have traditionally been the beneficiaries of governmental intercession in their interests are miners. Mining safety has been the concern of both State and National Governments, expressed through State boards for the examination and licensing of supervisory personnel, and State departments of mines for the administration and enforcement of laws regulating hours, working conditions, and safety provisions for miners. In 1910 a Federal agency, the United States Bureau of Mines, was created for scientific research, experiment, and education and for the setting up of safety, health, and operating standards.

Workmen's compensation movement.

Although apparently quite fortuitously, the year 1913 also marks a definite change in the character of the movement to compensate injured victims of industrial accidents. The first phase of that movement was the appointment of commissions of inquiry. In the 4-year period 1909–12, 24 States created workmen's compensation commissions to investigate the extent of the problem and to make recommendations. Twelve of these were established in 1911. In that year workmen's compensation laws were enacted in 10 States, and in 1912 4 more States took legislative action on the problem. Thus by 1913, together with two States and the Federal Government which had passed compensation laws prior to 1911, 17 jurisdictions had studied the problem and had accepted the principle of compensation for industrial injury. However, up to that point, the movement seems to have been almost wholly analytical, and the reports of the investigative commissions dealt with the economics of the question and the desirability of the regulatory legislation rather than with the practical application and operation of measures for control. Similarly the first laws were apparently experimental. Of the 17 laws in existence in 1913, 13 were either materially changed by amendment in that year or replaced by new legislation. In 1913 also, seven new States were placed in the ranks of those dealing with industrial accidents through legislative enactment and administrative agencies.

Governmental employment agencies.

The task of helping workers to secure employment had been assumed as a governmental function prior to 1913 in many States, beginning with Ohio's pioneering effort in 1890. The Federal Government created placement machinery in 1907, chiefly for the purpose of diverting immigrant labor from the port of entry to points where employment opportunities were greater. While these activities constituted recognition of placement work as a legitimate governmental activity in the interest of the worker, and were a well-meaning effort, they were neither efficient nor conspicuously successful.

The first steps toward coordination and cooperation among the various State employment services were made in 1913, when the officials of the public employment offices in eight States formed an association. Labor shortage before and during the World War and marked evolution in the concept of governmental responsibility in helping workers to find work had produced, by 1938, a public employment service that differed radically from that represented by the men who organized the International Association of Public Employment Services in 1913.

Regulation of woman and child labor.

Except for special classes of male workers, labor legislation concerned with working hours and other conditions largely affected women and children. Hence, enforcement agencies were essentially specialized bureaus for the protection of women and children. Other functional agencies to promote the economic and industrial welfare of working women had not yet developed. The United States Children's Bureau, now a unit of the Department of Labor, was created in 1912. One of its first activities was to cooperate in an educational campaign which materially altered birth registration policies and procedures, a phase of vital statistics that has an important relation to child labor. It also set in motion the program of maternity and child welfare and the promotion of child labor standards, which have since been greatly expanded.

Creation of the United States Department of Labor

"We want a department in the Government of the United States that shall be distinctively a labor department, dealing with the labor questions and all that comes directly under that term," because wage earners "are the only people in all the country whose special rights and interests have no voice in the councils of the President." Thus Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor in a Congressional hearing upon a bill to establish a department of labor [1] stated the position the organized labor movement had taken for nearly 50 years. "Surely," he added, "so vast a number of people" ought to have opportunity to "have the attention of the President of the United States in his councils for the purpose of determining questions" of vital concern to them. Organized labor had not been satisfied with the compromise legislation which, in 1903, created a Department of Commerce and Labor and made existing Federal labor agencies subordinate units under that department. In 1908 the Democratic platform contained a plank which pledged the Democratic Party "to the enactment of a law creating a Department of Labor represented by a Secretary in the President's Cabinet." The bill introduced in 1908 and again in 1910 by Representative Sulzer of New York was enacted into law, with modifying amendments, in 1913 (62d Cong., 3d sess.), under the leadership of Senator Borah of Idaho, Chairman of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, and Representative William B. Wilson of Pennsylvania, chairman of the House Committee on Labor, without opposition and without a roll-call vote in either house. It was signed by President Taft on March 4, 1913, immediately before his term of office expired. A few hours later,

[1] U. S. House of Representatives, Committee on Labor, Subcommittee No. 2 (61st Cong.): Hearings on H. R. 3646, to establish Department of Labor. May 25, 1910, p. 10.

Representative Wilson, a former international secretary of the United Mine Workers, became the first Secretary of Labor under President Wilson. The purpose of the newly created governmental agency was declared in the organic act to be "to foster, promote, and develop the welfare of the wage earners of the United States, to improve their working conditions, and to advance their opportunities for profitable employment."

The act transferred to the new department all the units of the Department of Commerce and Labor that concerned workers, together with their statutory functions. These included the Bureau of Labor, which became the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization, which was divided into two bureaus, each discharging its own statutory function, and the Children's Bureau. The enabling act specifically conferred power upon the Secretary of Labor "to act as mediator and to appoint commissioners of conciliation in labor disputes whenever in his judgment the interests of industrial peace may require it to be done."

Objectives of sponsors.

No set program of activity or endeavor was outlined in the organic act, and those who sponsored the creation of the new department made it clear that from their viewpoint the new agency should be left free to find its own range and develop its own field of greatest usefulness, subject to whatever legislative restrictions or mandates might be imposed by Congress. It is nonetheless interesting to note some of the fields of possible development that were suggested during the course of the passage of the bill, and their relation to present activities of the Department of Labor. Throughout the hearings and the brief discussions in Congress, and in the report of the House Committee on Labor the possibilities of the proposed agency as an instrument in the maintenance of industrial peace were strongly emphasized. At the hearing held on the earlier bill (H. R. 3646) on May 26, 1910, Arthur E. Holder, representing the American Federation of Labor, said that "we believe a department of labor would finally be able to evolve such a system" of peaceful adjustment of labor disputes "that we would all feel satisfied with the results." The House Committee on Labor stressed that aspect of potential usefulness of the agency it sought to create. Because "the friendly offices of some one who has the confidence of both sides to a controversy, when used intelligently and at the proper moment, can do more to bring contending parties together upon terms satisfactory to all concerned than any other policy that can be pursued," the Committee felt that authority to act in such a capacity, conferred upon a governmental agency, would be "of immense value in promoting industrial peace".[2]

[1] U. S. Senate (62d Cong., 2d sess.), Committee on Education and Labor. Report No. 973 (to accompany H. R. 22913), July 26, 1912.

The informational needs of workers and legislators specifically, and the educational value of information gathered to fill those needs, were also pointed out. Mr. Holder contended that "we should have a department that would know absolutely at all times what we were paying for commodities and what was being paid for labor." He reminded the Committee that "as legislators you are confronted with the great problem of the cost of living," and that, when "the question of wages comes along in with the cost of living" there was a dearth of up-to-date information. Moreover, "the productive value of American labor in comparison with the productive value of labor in other lands * * * is one of the things we really do not know" and "is one of the facts that we want a department of this kind to ascertain so that we will know what we are talking about."

Another objective outlined at the hearing was that the Department of Labor should become "one of the influences and one of the means by which safety devices in factories could be studied and eventually standardized. * * * We want to standardize factory safety devices," Mr. Holder declared. "Our States are floundering around in all kinds of ways, some making more headway than others."

Another witness saw, as "one of the great benefits of a labor department of this kind," a medium to correct a condition by which "in nearly all occupations, there is a considerable percentage of men out of employment at all times." A third discussed the improvement in the condition of workers employed on Government contracts that would follow if a Secretary of Labor, clothed with authority to investigate infractions of laws dealing with Government regulations, were made responsible for working conditions on Government work.

Development of program.

In the quarter century that has passed since the Department of Labor was founded, none of the objectives of its sponsors has been wholly lost sight of. Some of them are determining factors in its present and future program. The Conciliation Service, which grew out of an activity undertaken as soon as the Department was established in 1913, has been continuously vigilant in the effort to promote industrial peace. The Bureau of Labor Statistics pursues regular studies whose aims are identical with those mentioned 28 years ago as vital and which are today still vital. The Division of Labor Standards, an administrative unit of the Department of Labor established in 1934, is charged with stimulating and standardizing the safety and health activities of State departments of labor. A Nation-wide employment service directed and coordinated through the United States Employment Service, a statutory unit of the Department of Labor created in 1933, is of daily benefit to workers of all classes and occupations who are out of work.

Wages paid to building-trades men employed on Federal building projects were protected by the "prevailing wage rate" law enacted by Congress in 1931. In case of dispute as to what the prevailing wage rates in building construction are, the Secretary of Labor is authorized by the act to determine the rate in the locality where work is being done for the Government and to make a decision binding upon all parties. By legislative enactment in 1936 the Secretary of Labor was given wider powers in relation to employment conditions under Government contract for goods and services other than construction. This function is discharged through the latest functional unit of the Department, the Division of Public Contracts.

Working women were not represented in the hearings on the Sulzer bill, and their specific needs were not stressed. But the need and the value of specialized activities in their interest were demonstrated during the war. Accordingly, a demand arose for the continuance of the functional unit of the emergency war organization in the Department that was serving the needs of working women. Responding to that demand, Congress enacted a law in 1920 creating the Women's Bureau as the fifth statutory unit of the Department of Labor.

Governmental Labor Activities During the War

Department of Labor.

The early development of the Department of Labor was materially affected first by war conditions in Europe and later by American participation in the World War. The Department had been in existence just 4 years when the United States entered the war. At the close of the fiscal year 1918 the Secretary of Labor declared in his annual report that "had the Department of Labor not existed at the beginning of the war, Congress would have been obliged to create such a department." Coordination of industrial activity on a war basis and the promulgation and maintenance of a national labor policy were imperative. Labor problems became the problems of the Government.

From a small agency consisting of four unrelated bureaus and the Office of the Secretary, through which conciliation and mediation activities were discharged, the Department evolved into a War Labor Administration composed of 13 separate bureaus and services and two functional boards. The War Labor Policies Board was created to harmonize administrative labor relations in the various branches of the Government concerned with production for war use. The War Labor Board was formed as a court of last resort to provide for the continuance of governmental intercession, after informal mediation efforts had failed, in industrial disputes involving war produc-

tion or "other fields of national activity, delays and obstructions in which might, in the opinion of the national board, affect detrimentally such production."

Other functional units of the War Labor Administration dealt with the special problems, working conditions, and employment relations of the great numbers of women recruited by industry to take the places of the men called into military service; with the determination and adoption of acceptable working conditions in the essential industries; with emergency housing and transportation facilities for Government employees and workers on Government contracts; and with the recruiting, distribution, and short-term training of labor.

United States Railroad Administration.

Outside the Department of Labor other governmental agencies were set up to deal with emergency problems affecting workers. The most important of these agencies, at least from the viewpoint of their measurable influence on postwar and present-day governmental activity in the interest of the workers, were those created as an adjunct to railroad operation under Government control. When shortly after the United States entered the war, the railroads passed into the control of the Government as represented by the United States Railroad Administration, a division of labor was created under the immediate direction of an administrator who had formerly been president of one of the railroad brotherhoods. Adjustment machinery was organized for each branch of railroad operation (train movement, shop, and maintenance and communication) which consisted of bipartisan boards representing management and labor in each branch. Procedure was largely that already in operation under collective agreements between the railroads and their organized employees, which provided for successive steps in the adjustment of controversies from local machinery at the point of origin through designated channels to the final adjustment boards. Under Federal control these boards became governmental agencies and the proviso was added that if they failed to reach a decision, final action was to lie with the Director General of the Railroad Administration whose decision was to be binding and enforceable. Special machinery was provided, through an assistant director of the division of labor, to handle disputes and grievances of unorganized railroad employees.

A board of railroad wages and working conditions was created to investigate and to hold hearings on complaints dealing with wages, working rules, and other conditions imposed by the decrees of the Railroad Administration. A women's service section in the division of labor was assigned the duty of carrying out decrees relating to the working conditions of the women who, in large numbers, were taking up wholly new lines of work in railroad operation. Among the policies

established by decree were those of equal pay for equal work and careful attention to the safety and health hazards involved in the occupations which women were entering for the first time.

Other emergency labor agencies.

Machinery similar to that dealing with railroad operation was set up in the United States Shipping Board for the adjustment of disputes in shipping. The Emergency Construction Commission was organized to handle labor affairs in the construction of army cantonments. The Shipbuilding Labor Adjustment Board not only dealt with grievances and controversies of various kinds, but undertook to equalize wage scales in the different shipbuilding centers, and to minimize labor turn-over and the practice of "labor stealing" which threatened production. Just before the armistice this board promulgated a wage order granting substantial increases in wages on the basis of the advance in the cost of living determined by a survey made at its request by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Other wartime agencies which were compelled to deal with wages as part of their function to keep production moving attempted to equalize rates or maintain uniform scales, to prevent workers from shifting from job to job to secure higher wages and employers from offering extravagant wages to entice workers away from other plants. The Emergency Construction Commission ordered that union wages, hours of labor, and working conditions prevailing in each locality under its jurisdiction should be applied to all war construction jobs in that locality.

The record of achievement of all the emergency organizations hurriedly created to meet a condition which Government never had had to face before on so vast a scale was necessarily affected by the pressure and tension under which they functioned, and by the fact that the oldest of them had been in operation less than a year when the war ended. Some of them were scarcely organized before they were discontinued. Nevertheless an entirely new tenet of governmental responsibility toward the Nation's producers had become generally accepted, and much of the experience gained in dealing with the conditions produced by war was drawn on when the country again faced a national crisis in the depression.

International Labor Conference, 1919

One part of the treaty of peace that followed the war called for the establishment of an international agency devoted to the correction of conditions of labor in all countries that tended to produce industrial and social unrest. It provided also that the organization of this agency should take place at an initial meeting to be held in Washington, D. C., in October 1919.

This provision of the Versailles Treaty was acceded to and implemented by the Congress of the United States in a joint resolution approved August 15, 1919, authorizing the President "to convene and make arrangements for the organization of a general international labor conference to be held in Washington, D. C." The President designated the Secretary of Labor as his representative in the discharge of that obligation. The Secretary of Labor immediately sent a representative to London to work with representatives of foreign governments in making arrangements and planning the program and procedure for the first conference. Other representatives of the Department of Labor cooperated with the State Department in the administrative details involved in preparing for the international gathering.

On October 29, 1919, the Secretary of Labor opened the first international labor conference and was elected its president. In his opening address Secretary Wilson stressed the fact that "this institution," which became the International Labor Organization, "represents the first concerted effort on the part of the nations of the earth to deal with the problems of labor in a comprehensive manner."

Formal establishment of the International Labor Organization, membership in which was contingent upon ratification of the peace treaties by individual nations, did not come about until later. As a nonsignatory power, the United States did not, after the first conference, continue its relations with the International Labor Organization. By a later modification of the basis of membership, permitting nations not signatories to the treaties nor members of the League of Nations to join the International Labor Organization, the United States joined in 1934, and, as stated by the Secretary of Labor in 1936, "assumed through the Department of Labor full responsibility of active membership."

Government and Industrial Relations

Outside the field of fact-finding the aspect of labor welfare that was first recognized as an obligation of government was the maintenance of industrial stability through intercession in labor disputes. Conciliation and mediation, and the promotion of voluntary arbitration have continued to be major objectives of governmental labor programs. Agencies for the purpose of bringing the weight and prestige of the State to bear on disturbed industrial relations are numerous and are steadily increasing in number and effectiveness.

As already pointed out, a conciliation service was organized within the United States Department of Labor immediately after the Department was created. At the close of the first full year of operation the Secretary of Labor stated in his second annual report (1914) that "of all the functions of the Department of Labor which it is yet possible to administer, this one may reasonably be regarded as the most im-

portant." Throughout the 25 years of the Department's existence it has continuously placed at the disposal of workers, employers, and the public, the impartial service of governmental representatives equally concerned with safeguarding the rights of all three groups. The Conciliation Service acts only upon the request of affected persons or groups. Its procedure is the simple one of bringing an unbiased viewpoint to bear upon the problem of accommodating conflicting attitudes. But the fact that its work is constantly expanding in response to calls made upon it is evidence of the value of the service it has, throughout its 25 years of endeavor, been able to perform.

Similar service is available through the medium of State labor departments in most of the industrial States. On the whole the policy of interceding only upon request is followed by the State agencies. In some instances, however, the law requires that the State, through its conciliation machinery, act at once to avert or to settle a strike. Evidence of the steadily increasing importance and prestige of governmental intercession in labor disputes is found in the fact that among recently created State labor departments the function of conciliation and mediation is written into the organic acts as being one of the important reasons for their establishment. The effectiveness of these agencies, both State and Federal, is indicated by the increasing numbers of cases, as shown by official reports, in which these representatives of government have secured amicable adjustment of differences before actual stoppage of work occurred.

The Conciliation Service of the Department of Labor and the machinery of the various State departments function wherever need arises except in fields covered by special agencies. Railroad operation is one of these fields, and was in fact the first for which permanent mediation machinery was devised. While several different forms have been tried, the purpose of the Government agency is to provide a medium to which recourse may be had after the adjustment machinery contained in collective agreements has failed to bring about an understanding between those directly involved.

Under the National Recovery Administration various mechanisms for the adjustment of disputes in specific industries were set up. The Automobile Labor Board, for example, handed down arbitral awards in disputes in which both sides agreed to refer the case for a decision which they would accept as binding.

Promotion of Collective Bargaining

A different technique for stabilizing industrial relations through governmental intercession was developed under the N. R. A. That was the device of employee elections to determine representation for

collective bargaining purposes. While legislation declaring and in effect guaranteeing the right of workers to organize and to enter into negotiations with employers for the determination of their own working conditions was part of the National Recovery Program of 1933–35, the concept was not new. In 1918 the President's Mediation Commission, of which the Secretary of Labor was chairman, in its report to President Wilson declared that "since it is no longer possible to conduct industry by dealing with employees as individuals," some form of "collective relationship between management and men is indispensable. The recognition of this principle by the Government should form an accepted part of the labor policy of the Nation." Fifteen years later the principle was not only accepted as a policy, but administrative machinery was provided through the creation of the National Labor Relations Board, the function of which is to protect the rights of the workers to form and to hold membership in a labor organization, and to assist them in securing a voice in the determination of their working conditions "by encouraging the practice and procedure of collective bargaining." As in conciliation and mediation, this example thus set by the Federal Government has already been followed by five States.

Safety and Health

Leadership in the movement for the control and eventual elimination of industrial accidents had been assumed by the United States Bureau of Labor before the Department of Labor was created. The same agency was among the first to direct popular attention to the health hazards in industry by studying and making public the effect of processes, practices, and substances entering into modern industry on the health of workers. The Bureau of Labor under the former Department of Commerce and Labor, with the Bureau of Mines and the Interstate Commerce Commission, represented the United States Government at the conference out of which came the National Safety Council, the organization engaged in Nation-wide accident-prevention in industry as well as in the whole field of safety practices. Two State governments, Wisconsin and Minnesota, were also represented.

Governmental responsibility for safe working conditions and the prevention of industrial accidents rests primarily upon the inspection staffs of State and Federal agencies charged with the enforcement of safety laws. In State jurisdictions that duty is discharged by departments of labor, departments of mines, and industrial boards and commissions through their factory, mine, boiler, building, and elevator inspectors. In States where accident prevention has advanced to a high standard of efficiency, specially trained safety engineers direct the work of the inspectors. Through the authority

granted the State agency they are able to make rules and regulations enforceable as law to meet changing conditions. Investigation by State inspectors of accidents as they occur enables those responsible for preventive action to determine causes and locate failures. With this information scientific methods for accident prevention are constantly being perfected and put in operation. Factory inspectors and safety experts attached to State agencies are also active mediums for spreading the gospel of safe practices and accident prevention in the work places they visit, and the educational value of their work is probably of far greater importance in reducing accidents and making work safe than is the actual inspection to insure compliance with laws and regulations.

Direct responsibility for safety and accident prevention by means of inspection and law enforcement devolves upon the Federal Government only with regard to interstate and ocean transportation. Safe operation of railroads and motor carriers in the interest of employees as well as the traveling public is a major obligation of the Interstate Commerce Commission. The inspection work of the Bureau of Marine Inspection and Navigation of the Department of Commerce is directed toward safety at sea for workers as well as travelers.

Much of the safety work of the Federal Government is, however, educational and promotional. The research work of the Bureau of Mines covers continuing studies of mine hazards and special investigation of accidents to determine immediate causes and contributing factors. Its experimental work deals with ventilation and analysis of explosives and mine equipment. Special educational activities include conducting classes in first-aid and mine-rescue work throughout mining areas. The mine-rescue section of the Bureau is also an active agent in handling and directing rescue work when mine disasters occur.

The Department of Labor, through its Division of Labor Standards, is endeavoring to coordinate safety movements and to stimulate the efforts of State labor agencies in the fields of industrial safety and health. By disseminating the most scientific information available as to technical methods of control, and by holding training classes for the inspectors who are the point of direct contact between workers and employers and the State agencies, the educational work of the division is reaching a wide field.

Probably the greatest stimulus to reducing the accident hazard in industry has come through the adoption of workmen's compensation laws, which assess industry for the social cost of accidents and provide some measure of financial assistance to the injured worker and his dependents. That movement has been so active in the past quarter

century that while in 1913 only 17 States had adopted the principle of compensation for industrial accidents, in 1938 industrial workers in all but two States are protected by workmen's compensation laws administered by specialized governmental machinery.

The theory of compensation to cover occupational disease, which was only partially accepted in the early compensation laws, is becoming more widely recognized. Material assistance to the movement directed toward analysis and control of occupational-disease hazards has come through the provision of the Social Security Act, administered by the United States Public Health Service, which makes available to States grants-in-aid for research and practical experiment. Several State labor departments have in the past few years greatly expanded their safety work to extend the same kind of organized scientific prevention with which they have, during the past 25 years, attacked the accident hazard to the more sinister hazards of occupational disease.

Employment and Unemployment

One purpose for which the Department of Labor was created, as expressed in its organic act, was to advance the opportunities of American wage earners for profitable employment. Placing a literal construction upon that declared purpose, the Department has endeavored, within its capacities, to bring together the worker who needed a job and the job that needed to be filled. Throughout a large part of the Department's history that effort was made against heavy odds. Inadequate appropriations and personnel drastically reduced the extensive recruiting and placement machinery that had been set up to meet war conditions. That machinery was called upon to function during a period of great demand on one hand and labor shortage on the other. Thus, while it established placement as an accepted governmental function it provided little in the way of guidance or experience to apply when conditions were reversed.

The Secretary of Labor called a conference on employment which met in April 1919, "to define and establish the most effective form of relationship between National and State employment activities and in general bring about a definite objective toward which all may work to the end that a thorough and comprehensive public employment service may be permanently established." The plan adopted by this conference and approved by the Department of Labor outlined a system of State employment offices maintained by State governments with Federal financial aid on a matched-fund basis, to be coordinated and directed through the United States Employment Service of the Department of Labor. The plan was embodied in a bill introduced into the House of Representatives by Representative Nolan of California and into the Senate by Senator Kenyon of Iowa.

The bill, however, was never reported out of committee. The United States Employment Service continued as a functional unit of the Secretary's Office, and did effective work in helping veterans to find jobs, and in recruiting and obtaining transportation for harvest workers. At the same time State employment services were functioning in many States, with varying degrees of success. Practically always poorly financed, State placement offices as a rule did little except in the fields of unskilled, casual, and domestic employment.

In 1933 Congress passed an act, popularly known as the Wagner-Peyser Act, establishing a national system of public employment offices on essentially the same pattern as that proposed by the Kenyon-Nolan bill of 1919. Its purpose was to establish and maintain a closely knit, integrated system of employment offices operating on a Nation-wide scale, responsible and responsive to the United States Employment Service created by the act as a bureau of the Department of Labor. The United States Employment Service is charged with the duty of developing minimum standards of efficiency, promoting uniformity in administrative and statistical procedure and maintaining a system of clearance of labor. Formal acceptance of the system and of the general direction of the central agency is required of each cooperating State to become eligible to Federal grant.

At the close of the fiscal year 1937 all States had passed the legislation necessary to formal identification with the National Employment Service and the system was in operation in all but six. In addition the United States Employment Service was maintaining special placement facilities for veterans and farm laborers and was operating a public employment center for the District of Columbia. The Service is constantly searching for the best means by which to discharge its statutory obligation to develop standards of efficiency and promote uniformity in administrative and statistical procedure throughout the system. Research and experiment, using the employment offices under its direct control as a laboratory, are the mediums to that end. Personal contact between the central coordinating agency and the State services is maintained through field representatives, conferences, and a publication devoted entirely to the service.

A more direct attack on employment was made through governmental agencies as part of the national recovery program. This was the creation of employment through the Public Works Administration, The Works Program, the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration. These were emergency measures, adopted to enable Government to find employment for workers who for the time being had no place in industry or commerce. They not only furnished employment to millions, but they were the means of enlarging the educational, recreational, power, housing, and transportation facilities of the Nation. From the workers' viewpoint perhaps more important

still, they made it possible for vast numbers who otherwise would probably have remained idle, to retain or acquire needed occupational skills. These opportunities were not limited to industrial workers; rather they were extended to professional men and women of many groups and to young persons who had never had the opportunity to enter productive employment. The offices of the United States Employment Service and the National Reemployment Service assumed a great part of the enormous task of directing workers to the projects undertaken through the national recovery program to create employment.

Under the broad program looking toward permanent measures for establishing economic stability embodied in the Social Security Act of 1935, a system of compensation for unemployment was set up. With the development and complete functioning of that system, most American workers will be insured against having to carry the whole financial burden of unemployment, as heretofore they have had to do. This system, like the employment office system, will operate through State agencies supervised and to a great extent supported by a centralized Federal agency, the Social Security Board. The United States Employment Service cooperates with the Social Security Board in the administration of the State unemployment compensation acts, through the facilities of the State employment services.

Protection of Woman Workers

The first labor legislation in the United States aimed at a measure of protection for women and children against long working hours and against the exploitation of very young children. Since then, general acceptance of the theory that guardianship of the welfare of women and children is a necessary function of government in the interest of the State has resulted in much legislative regulation of their working conditions. With great increase in the volume of labor laws to be administered and enforced, the special needs of women and children were more or less submerged. At the same time the number of women employed in industry was increasing actually and relatively. The findings of the extensive investigation of working conditions of women and children made by the Bureau of Labor, then in the Department of Commerce and Labor, in the years 1907–10, set in motion forces that produced new regulatory legislation and strengthened the enforcing machinery. Revelations of the low wages paid to working women vitalized the minimum-wage movement, and by the end of the year in which the Department of Labor was created, several States had made preliminary surveys of wage conditions, through minimum wage commissions, and nine States had enacted minimum-wage laws.

Great numbers of women became wage earners during the war, taking the places of the men formerly employed. Many of these had

never been employed before. Their sudden entrance into an economic situation unprepared in many ways to receive them brought with it serious problems. The Department of Labor created in the Woman in Industry Service of the War Labor Administration an agency whose immediate function was to prevent the employment of women on war work under deleterious conditions, and whose wider task was to develop standards and policies that would make for acceptable working conditions, and to study and advise upon the problems of women in industry. The importance and permanent value of the work the service was doing were such that a demand was voiced by organized groups of women, with the support of the labor movement and the Secretary of Labor, that it be made a permanent function of the Department of Labor. In response to that demand, Congress created the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor in 1920. Its organic act outlines its functions as the formulation of standards and policies "which shall promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment." It was authorized to conduct investigations and surveys in connection with the standards it was charged with formulating. In consequence the Women's Bureau has made both extensive and intensive study, from the viewpoint of women, of the varying social and economic factors affecting the life, health, and welfare of working women.

Since the Federal Women's Bureau was established several similar State agencies have been formed. These in many cases operate independently of the units enforcing legislation regulating women's work, as research and standard-making agencies. Cooperation between these State agencies and the Federal Bureau is close and helpful.

The 25 years of the Department's existence coincided with the period during which the checkered history of the minimum-wage movement was written. In 1913, nine States had enacted laws providing for a basic minimum below which wages for women could not legally fall. Within the next decade eight more States passed that type of regulatory legislation. In some of these States agencies were created to administer it. Several minimum-wage commissions, in each case a component part of the State labor agency, successfully administered the minimum-wage laws. In other States the administrative agency called for in the law was either not established or it was given no money with which to work. In still others no special enforcement machinery was created. In 1923 a decision of the Supreme Court of the United States declared that legislation making mandatory the payment of a prescribed wage for adult workers was unconstitutional.

For the next 10 years the movement was moribund. Most States either carried on sharply curtailed activities of a purely advisory or

persuasive nature, or repealed their laws entirely. The movement revived in 1933 under leadership in which State labor agencies were prominent. A new type of law, devised to surmount the constitutional obstacle encountered by previous efforts to insure woman workers a living wage, was enacted by several States during 1933 and 1934, and machinery was enacted to administer it. This law, too, met an adverse decision by the Supreme Court and minimum-wage activities were again at a standstill. Then a subsequent decision of the United States Supreme Court, in 1937, reversed the decision of 1923, and upheld the constitutionality of the older type of minimum-wage law, which declared for adequate wages based on the cost of living as a necessary protection of the life and health of women.

Since this latest pronouncement of the high court, machinery for arriving at, establishing, and maintaining a wage rate below which working women may not be paid has been either created or revived in every State which has a minimum-wage law and progress in making cost-of-living surveys and convening wage boards to determine wage rates has been rapid. The Federal Women's Bureau has assumed leadership in the movement to establish comparable standards and uniform methods of administration. In the setting up of standards for determining what constitutes decent and healthful living and what living actually costs, the Women's Bureau has the cooperation of the Bureau of Home Economics of the United States Department of Agriculture and of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Regulation of Child Labor

During the quarter century, two efforts have been made to regulate child labor under Federal law. The first of these was the Federal Child Labor Act of 1916 administered by the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor. That law closed to interstate and foreign commerce the product of any mine, quarry, or manufacturing establishment on which any child had been employed in violation of specific terms of employment set up by the act. The law did not become effective until one year after its passage. During that year the Children's Bureau and State labor departments were working to create a coordinated, cooperative mechanism for enforcement of a law that called for specialized administrative techniques. State inspectors enforcing State child-labor laws were deputized by the Federal agency, which however retained supervisory and directory authority.

This law was declared unconstitutional about nine months after it went into effect. The personnel used in its enforcement was retained on similar inspection work on Government orders during the war.

The second move toward Federal control of child labor was the imposition of a special tax upon all goods manufactured or produced in establishments in which children were employed in violation of standards set by the act. Standards under which a child could be employed were essentially the same as those embodied in the first Federal Child Labor Act. This provision in the tax law was administered by the child-labor tax division of the Bureau of Internal Revenue, through inspection and an age-certification system in which State labor agencies cooperated. This regulatory method lasted 4 years, 1918–22, and then met the same barrier of unconstitutionality that had ended the previous effort at Federal regulation under the first child-labor law, enforced by the Department of Labor.

Since the war, the activities of the Children's Bureau, in their specific application to working children, have been mainly of a research, consultative, and educational character, directed toward improvement of standards and administrative procedures. Many agencies are involved in the administration of State child-labor laws. Enforcement through inspection is the function of the State labor department in practically all States which make provision for central administration. The issuance of employment certificates, which are the basic mediums through which child labor is controlled is the province of State labor departments in some States, and of school authorities in others. School officers have some responsibility for enforcement in some jurisdictions and health officers in others. However, the general trend, which has been clearly marked throughout the past quarter century, is toward integrated administration of child-labor laws through State labor departments, and toward the creation of special units for research and education in the problem of control and eventual elimination of child labor.

Immigrant Workers

Radical changes have occurred during the life of the Department of Labor with regard to immigration, over which Federal law gives it exclusive jurisdiction. During each of the first 2 years of the Department's existence, over 1,400,000 aliens arrived in this country. Problems of distribution and assimilation had become increasingly acute. Immigration was abruptly and decisively checked by the European War, and in 1915 fewer than a third of a million immigrants entered the United States.

Before the war ended, the United States Congress had passed one law, the Literacy Act of 1917, the effect of which was to check such mass movements as had occurred before 1914. In 1924 the quota law was passed, which imposed even greater restrictions. In consequence

of rigid laws and world-wide depression, the volume of immigration admitted in the recent past has been slight.

The carrying out of the new policy of selectivity, as opposed to the traditional policy of almost unqualified welcome, has called for strict enforcement and application of the law. Much of the routine work connected with immigration under quota is done for the Department of Labor at the point of origin by the consular offices of the State Department. On the other hand, with bars at the ports of legitimate entry, constant vigilance and greatly enlarged facilities at the borders have been necessary to guard against illegal entry. Border patrolling is now one of the most important functions of the Immigration Service.

Assimilation of our alien population has been materially simplified by this check of the constant influx. Greater interest in citizenship is evident in the demand for the Federal Textbook on Citizenship Training published by the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization, and in the increased attendance at Americanization schools, especially in the Americanization classes conducted under the Federal Emergency Relief Administration and its successor, the Works Progress Administration.

The results of this movement are apparent in the increase in applications for citizenship. As reported by the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization for the fiscal year 1937, the number of declarations filed and certificates of naturalization issued during that year exceeded the record of the preceding 6 years. While depression conditions and certain policies militating against aliens have perhaps also been operating to the same end, many aliens who have been in this country for years without becoming naturalized are now seeking to change their alien status to that of American citizenship.

Education and Training

From Colonial days governmental authorities of this country have discharged the duty of providing for the education of its people. The universal public school system of the United States is due very largely to the organized, effective demands of American workers of a century ago. Within the past quarter century a new need has been felt and again in response to the demands of the workers, efforts have been made to meet the need for vocational education and training toward definite occupational ends. Leadership in this movement has been assumed by the United States Government under an act of Congress passed in 1917 (the Smith-Hughes law) which created a Federal Board for Vocational Education. The administrative mechanism devised to establish and maintain vocational training programs was in fact the prototype of that later adopted under the Wagner-Peyser act to establish a Nation-wide employment service. That is, it called for

the organization of an administering agency within each State, subject to State control, which would formally accept leadership and guidance from the Federal Government in carrying out a program based on minimum standards set by the central agency, for which the Federal Government accepted a degree of financial obligation.

The objective of the Federal-State cooperative program under the Smith-Hughes law and subsequent enactments is to provide opportunity, through full-time, part-time, or evening classes for practical and technical training related directly to earning a living, as contrasted to the more formal academic education available through the usual public school systems. The program is in operation in every State, the Territory of Hawaii, and the District of Columbia. In some jurisdictions highly organized and specialized agencies are carrying out plans which far exceed, in scope and method, those fixed as minimum standards by the Federal agency. At the same time, the maintenance of standards by the Government, through supervision and financial assistance, assures to all students, even in less progressive communities, opportunities within the limits set as basic.

The creation of opportunities for more specific occupational training under approved labor standards for those desiring to become skilled craftsmen by way of apprenticeship is the objective of the Federal Committee on Apprentice Training which became a statutory unit of the Department of Labor in 1937, after having been active since 1934 as an administrative agency. The work of the Committee is solely promotional, advisory, and educational. It cooperates with authoritative groups to secure the acceptance of a modernized apprentice system in training craftsmen. The most highly developed method of governmental stimulation of formal apprenticeship is that of the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, which is a party to all legal indentures executed by apprentices and their employers. It supervises the training and regulates the working conditions of all apprentices entering into formal apprenticeship indentures throughout the State. Laws similar to that of Wisconsin have been enacted recently in other States, but in such States administrative systems have not yet been perfected.

Training, reeducation, and rehabilitation of workers injured in industrial or other accidents, or handicapped in any way, are an additional function of the Government discharged through the Vocational Rehabilitation Division of the Office of Education and the Federal Board for Vocational Education. This activity operates through the same type of Federally aided State machinery as that for vocational education. Restoration of earning capacity is the objective in the case of disabled workers. This may be accomplished by providing facilities for physical restoration, through treatment or appliances, by the retraining of former skills or the development of new ones, or by

assistance and guidance into avenues of self-employment. This service, through Federal and State agencies, is the right of all persons capable of rehabilitation. But the immensity of the undertaking and the extent of the many human factors involved impose obstacles that make the rehabilitation program one not easy of realization. Nevertheless, in the 17 years that have followed the inauguration of the work in 1920, thousands of workers have had their earning capacity restored and have regained or acquired the hold upon economic stability and personal happiness that accident, disease, or congenital defect had endangered.

A broad program of adult education was carried on as an emergency relief project through the Workers' Education Bureau of the Federal Works Progress Administration. It reached several million persons and was the instrument through which nearly three-quarters of a million adult men and women learned to write intelligibly and to read newspapers understandingly. Cultural and practical subjects have been made available to adult workers through study groups and regular class work. Occupational training and opportunities for intensive study are offered to boys and young men enrolled in the Civilian Conservation Corps. The aptitudes, needs, and interests of each enrollee are determined by vocational counsellors, and education programs are formulated to serve individual ends. The C. C. C. has been the means of overcoming illiteracy for more than 50,000 boys, and of completing interrupted school work and obtaining diplomas for another large group. The Department of Labor has been instrumental, as an officially designated cooperating agency, in supervising the selection of young men for the C. C. C.

New Movements

The close of the quarter century finds under way new fields of governmental activity in the interest of American workers. A far-reaching project, affecting workers in all States, will reduce the slum areas of the country and provide new homes and new housing standards for large numbers. The most comprehensive effort yet undertaken is that provided by the Social Security Act which gives to the majority of the wage earners of the United States a measure of protection against indigent old age. By contributing to and building up benefit rights based on their work and earnings, workers eligible to old-age benefits will, upon retirement from active work after reaching the age of 65, be assured of some income for the remainder of their lives. A greater degree of care for the health of mothers and children, especially in rural areas and districts affected by economic distress, has been made possible through a cooperative plan between the States and the Federal Government, through the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor. Federal aid is extended to States to assist in

maintaining maternal and child-health services, child welfare programs, and corrective treatment and care for crippled children.

The Department of Labor was given the opportunity, by the Walsh-Healey Act of 1936 dealing with labor conditions in plants working on Government contracts, to establish employment standards enforceable under a law which the Department itself administers. Within this limited field acceptable standards are being established and maintained and minimum rates of pay determined. This latest statutory function of the United States Department of Labor may conceivably point the way whereby through laboratory methods and the force of example, the basic obligation of the Department to "foster, promote, and develop the welfare of the wage earners of the United States" and "to improve their working conditions" may advance to a greater degree of fulfillment than was achieved during its first quarter century.

WAGES, EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS, AND WELFARE OF SUGAR-BEET LABORERS

By ELIZABETH S. JOHNSON, *Industrial Division, U. S. Children's Bureau*

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT, in his message to Congress on proposed sugar legislation on March 1, 1937, said: "It is also highly desirable to continue the policy, which was inherent in the Jones-Costigan Act, of effectuating the principle that an industry which desires the protection afforded by a quota system or a tariff should be expected to guarantee that it will be a good employer. I recommend, therefore, that the prevention of child labor and the payment of wages of not less than minimum standards be included among the conditions for receiving a Federal payment."

On September 1, 1937, the President approved legislation which provided that benefits to growers of sugar beets and sugarcane are payable by the Government if the growers, in addition to meeting other conditions, do not employ any child labor in the production of the crop and if they have paid all the employed workers in full and at rates not less than those set by the Secretary of Agriculture as fair and reasonable.[1]

Interest in the wage rates to be established under this legislation makes timely a summary of pertinent data regarding the economic position and welfare of workers in the sugar-beet fields. This article, which assembles the findings of various Government inquiries, considers the conditions among the hired laborers who perform the hand work in the sugar-beet fields. It does not discuss the work performed by the sugar-beet growers themselves, the work performed by the farm laborers hired by the beet growers for work in the beet fields other than hand work, or any of the work of sugarcane growing.

Government Benefits to Growers

Conditions among hand laborers in the beet fields are characterized by extremely low annual incomes obtained from intermittent periods of intensive work of whole families, by a scarcity of supplementary work during the off season, and by a widespread dependence of beet workers upon public relief during the winter months. These conditions prevail in an industry which has been developed under tariff protection and which has recently received assistance under the quota, tax, and benefit programs of the Jones-Costigan Act of 1934[2] and of the Sugar Act of 1937. The framers of both of these acts

[1] Public, No. 414, 75th Cong., 1st sess., ch. 898.
[2] Public, No. 213, 73d Cong.

recognized the desirability of making the payment of benefits to growers conditional on the observance of certain standards with respect to wages and the use of child labor. Since the immediate possibility for improving the condition of sugar-beet workers is dependent to some extent upon the administration of the benefits to growers, it seems desirable to review briefly the benefit legislation of the Jones-Costigan Act and of the Sugar Act of 1937.

The Jones-Costigan Act of 1934 provided for the establishment of sugar quotas and marketing allotments, for a processing tax on sugar, and for benefits to growers making production-adjustment contracts for sugar beets with the Government. In providing for benefit payments to growers under the production-adjustment contracts, the act specified that these contracts might contain provisions regulating child labor and fixing minimum wages. For the year 1935, before provisions of the act were invalidated by the Supreme Court, child-labor provisions were made effective for the United States as a whole and minimum-wage rates were fixed for certain areas.

In 1934 under the Jones-Costigan Act the Government benefit payment (at the rate of $1.75 per ton of beets) was $17.15 per acre for a crop of average yield in the United States as a whole (9.8 tons per acre).[3] It is of interest to note that in that year the average earnings of 664 families who were included in the Children's Bureau survey of 1935 [4] and who reported their beet earnings per acre for 1934, were $16.40 per acre. In 1935, the Government benefit payment (at the rate of $1.13 per ton of beets) was $11.75 per acre of average yield in the United States (10.4 tons per acre).[5]

The Sugar Act of 1937, enacted after the invalidation of provisions of the Jones-Costigan Act by the Supreme Court, provides for a sugar-quota program, for a processing tax on sugar, and for conditional benefits to growers of sugar beets. The benefits are payable to a grower under the following conditions: He shall have observed certain soil-conservation practices; he shall have produced sugar beets not in excess of the proportionate share assigned to his farm; and he shall have observed certain standards relating to child labor and to wages.

A benefit rate of 60 cents for every 100 pounds of sugar commercially recoverable from sugar beets is provided for sugar-beet growers by

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[3] For rate of benefit see Agricultural Adjustment Administration press release of July 12, 1935.

[4] Report in preparation. This is a survey of conditions among families of sugar-beet laborers, based on interviews with 946 such families in 10 beet-growing areas: Central Michigan, southern Michigan; southern Minnesota; northern Colorado; Arkansas Valley, Colo.; Western Slope, Colo.; western Nebraska; northern Wyoming; southern Montana; and Sidney, Mont. Each family included had at least one child under 16 years of age and had done hand work in sugar-beet fields in 1935. The heads of most of the families (81 percent) had a contractual agreement with a beet grower for the performance of the work, some (17 percent) worked on an acreage basis as extra help with other families having a contract with a grower, and a very few (2 percent) worked at hand labor in the beet fields as day laborers hired either by contract laborers or directly by growers.

[5] For rate of benefit see Agricultural Adjustment Administration press release of October 1, 1936.

the act, except that a reduced rate of benefits on a graduated scale is provided for growers from whose beets more than 500 short tons of sugar is commercially recoverable (roughly equivalent to production from 300 acres of beets). This benefit payment at the 60-cent rate amounts to $19.42 an acre for a yield of 10.9 tons of beets per acre and a recovery of 297 pounds of sugar per ton of beets—the average yield and the average recovery for the United States during the 5-year period 1931 to 1935. Additional benefits to growers are also provided by this act in the form of crop insurance in case the acreage planted in beets is abandoned or in case the yield per acre harvested is less than 80 percent of the normal yield for the farm.

The establishment of minimum wage rates in connection with conditional benefit payments to growers is provided for by the Sugar Act of 1937 in the following language:

> That all persons employed on the farm in the production, cultivation, or harvesting of sugar beets or sugarcane with respect to which an application for payment is made shall have been paid * * * wages therefor at rates not less than those that may be determined by the Secretary [of Agriculture] to be fair and reasonable after investigation and due notice and opportunity for public hearing; and in making such determinations the Secretary shall take into consideration the standards therefor formerly established by him under the Agricultural Adjustment Act, as amended, and the differences in conditions among various producing areas.[6]

The criteria for establishing minimum-wage rates that were formulated by the Secretary of Agriculture under the Jones-Costigan amendment to the Agricultural Adjustment Act are those set forth in the production-adjustment contracts for sugar beets as follows:

> The Secretary [of Agriculture] shall have the authority (1) after due notice and opportunity for public hearing at a place accessible to producers and workers involved and (2) on the basis of a fair and equitable division among processors, producers, and workers of the proceeds derived from the growing and marketing of sugar beets, and the products thereof, to establish minimum wages for this factory district to be paid by producers to workers * * *.[7]

The Industry

Sugar beets are a cash crop raised for the most part by farmers under contract with sugar-manufacturing companies. The beet-raising localities extend from Ohio to California and are concentrated near the 87 beet-sugar factories in the United States. Colorado produces the largest amount of sugar beets, and California and Michigan produce the next largest amounts. About three-fourths of the sugar-beet acreage is in irrigated areas. The 87 beet-sugar factories are operated by 27 sugar-manufacturing companies. In 1936 these

[6] Public, No. 414, 75th Cong., 1st sess., ch. 898, sec. 301 (b).

[7] Sugar beet production adjustment contract (Form Sugar 3), approved October 16, 1934, p. 2.

factories were supplied with sugar beets by approximately 75,000 growers who harvested 785,000 acres of beets, an average of about 10 acres per grower.

So great are the labor requirements of beet-raising that hand labor on approximately three-fourths of the acreage is performed by contract laborers, in spite of the small average acreage per grower. The total number of beet laborers working under contracts in 1933 was estimated to be 110,354.[8] The hand labor on the remaining fourth of the sugar-beet acreage was done by beet growers aided by members of their families, and in some cases by laborers hired by the day.

All of the hand labor in the beet fields must be concentrated in brief periods scattered over 6 or 7 months of the year. Hand labor is used first for thinning the young plants that come up very thickly from seed planted in rows, then for hoeing and weeding the plants after thinning, and finally for pulling and topping the beets at harvest time. There are two periods of 3 to 5 weeks in which most of the hand work is concentrated, one usually in the latter part of May and the first of June for thinning, and one usually in October and the first of November for the harvesting operations.[9] Hoeing and weeding are done one, two, or three times during the summer. The thinning work must be done before the plants become too large and crowded. The topping work is telescoped into a few weeks in order that the beets may remain in the ground as long as possible to secure the maximum sugar content and yet be harvested before they are frozen into the ground. This need for a large amount of labor at scattered, brief periods has given rise to the practice of hiring special workers who perform only the hand-labor operations on the crop.

The sugar-beet workers in the United States are largely Spanish-speaking people of either American or Mexican birth. The second largest racial group is the Russian-German, which comprised 22 percent of all the heads of beet laborers' families included in a survey by the United States Children's Bureau in 1935. Other American-born adults rarely contract to do the hand work in the beet fields, however much they may be in need of employment, partly because the social status of beet laborers is low and partly because they are unaccustomed to the very fatiguing work, much of which is done in a stooping posture.

The Labor-Contract System

The use of seasonal contracts for the hiring of the hand labor is a distinctive feature of the sugar-beet industry. This labor contract is made between the beet grower and the worker after the grower has made a contract with the processor for the raising and selling of

[8] Abbott, W. Lewis: Report for the Committee on Labor Conditions in the Growing of Sugar Beets, Washington, 1934, p. iii. (Mimeographed.)

[9] In California, these operations are performed earlier in the year.

the crop. The employment status of beet workers is thus governed by a triangular relationship between the laborer, the grower, and the sugar company. Although the labor contract itself is an agreement between the grower and the hired worker, its terms are dependent in various ways, direct and indirect, upon the grower's agreement with the sugar company.

The labor contract itself specifies the acreage on which the hand work is to be performed, the manner in which the work shall be done, whether housing is to be provided, and the rate of wages per acre which is to be paid. It also usually specifies the time of payment in relation to the completion of each process of cultivation (in most instances, three installments during the year), the conditions under which store credit may be guaranteed for the worker while waiting for the payment of his wages, and the portion of earnings for summer work to be withheld until the harvest is completed ($1 to $2 an acre). Usually this contract authorizes the grower to hire extra help to be paid for by the contracting worker and specifies the manner of settling disputes and the basis of settlement in case the contracted work is not carried through to completion.

Specific provisions of labor contracts for each district in any given year are usually embodied in a printed form drawn up either by the sugar company which operates in that district or by an association of the beet growers of the district. The provisions of the printed labor contract become the general pattern of labor relations in each district, even though the individual worker may be hired under an oral agreement in place of a signed contract.

The sugar-manufacturing companies, although not legally responsible for the wages, employment, or social conditions of the beet laborers, are involved in the labor conditions and labor relations of the industry in numerous ways. The company, rather than the grower, recruits beet workers to be hired by the growers and may finance the cost of their long-distance transportation. It refers beet workers resident in the locality to the growers who do not find their own workers independently. The company decides when the grower shall permit the laborer to start work at each operation and whether the grower may or should require the hiring of additional labor to speed up the work on the acreage contracted by the original laborer. In case of dispute between the contracting laborer and the grower, the sugar company's field agent may assume the role of arbiter, either by contractual arrangement or by the force of circumstances. In many localities the sugar company provides dwellings in which beet workers may live the year round.

Important in determining the terms of the labor contract is the prior contract between the processing company and the grower. The price which the company agrees to pay the grower for beets sets a

limit upon the wage which the grower can afford to pay the contract laborer. For this reason the beet laborers' union is asking that the wage rate for 1938 be agreed upon before the processors and the growers fix the price for the 1938 crop.[10] The desirability of establishing the proper wage rate for beet labor prior to the drawing up of contracts fixing the price to be paid by the processor for the season's beet crop, was emphasized by the Industrial Commission of Colorado which recommended in the spring of 1937:

> That the price of beet-field labor should be determined or given consideration prior to the time of the establishment of the price for the sale of sugar beets. The price of beet-field labor should be one of the determining factors in the establishment of a price for the sale of beets. * * *[11]

The principal advantage to the industry of the labor-contract system is the assurance of a sufficient supply of hand labor during the growing and harvesting period. However, by favoring the use of family labor and of a wage level based on family labor, the contract system has given rise to many of the serious problems which face the sugar-beet workers. The father of a family who contracts for beet work often counts on using the labor of his wife and children in order to earn as much as possible during the short working season. The recruiting practices of the sugar-manufacturing companies have encouraged the use of family labor. Even in 1937, one sugar company of the Mountain States pointed out in a handbill addressed to prospective workers that "work in beets is very convenient for families for the reason that they do not have to depend solely upon the wages of the father, inasmuch as all members 14 years old and over are able to take part in the work." [12] The practice of making contracts with the heads of families is characteristic of the sugar-beet industry in Colorado, Wyoming, and Montana and in the beet-growing States to the East. Solo or gang labor of unattached men is more usual in California and Idaho. Members of the growers' own families for the most part perform the hand work on the beet crop of Utah.

The labor-contract system, as it is applied to family labor, is typically one in which the members of one family perform all the work on one labor contract, but in many instances the group working under a contract includes relatives and friends of the contractor's family, and sometimes strangers, who share in the wages for the work. Of the 918 families of beet laborers in the Children's Bureau survey of

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[10] In the matter of a hearing (Sugar Hearing 2) before the Secretary of Agriculture with respect to wage rates for persons employed in the production, cultivation, or harvesting of the 1937 sugar-beet crop, in the session held in Denver, Colo., October 14, 1937, pp. 60–62; in the session held in Billings, Mont., October 25, 1937, pp. 197–201.

[11] Recommendations by the Industrial Commission of Colorado in the matter of *Colorado Conference of Beet Field and Agricultural Workers Unions, employees,* v. *The Great Western Sugar Co. and the Sugar Beet Growers of the State of Colorado, employers,* May 7, 1937, p. 2.

[12] In the matter of a hearing (Sugar Hearing 2) before the Secretary of Agriculture with respect to wage rates for persons employed in the production, cultivation, or harvesting of the 1937 sugar-beet crop, in the session held in Scottsbluffs, Nebr., October 21, 1937, pp. 27–29.

1935 reporting on the use of extra help, 38 percent had paid persons outside the immediate family living as a household unit for doing part of the work for which the family had been paid wages under a labor contract. This extra help included all the persons working with the family throughout a process and also the extra help drawn in to speed up the work at the end. The largest number of persons outside the immediate family who were hired at any one time by one family averaged 2.9 for the families using extra help in 1935.

Child Labor and School Attendance

The work of young children has long been characteristic of the contract system for sugar-beet labor where family groups are used and continues to be a factor in the problems of beet labor. In 1920 the majority even of the 8- and 9-year old children in beet workers' families worked in the beet fields, according to a survey made in that year by the United States Children's Bureau, which was based on families where children under 16 or mothers of young children worked in the beet fields.[13]

Another survey of beet laborers' families made by the Children's Bureau in 1935 showed that children under 14 years of age were still to be found at work in the beet fields, although the proportion was markedly smaller than in the earlier period. In this survey it was found that 9 percent of the children 6 to 11 years of age and 50 percent of those 12 and 13 years of age in sugar-beet laborers' families worked in the beet fields.[14]

The decrease in the use of young children is due in large part to child-labor standards which were made effective in 1935 for the first time under the Jones-Costigan Act. Under this act the production-adjustment contracts for sugar beets provided that no children under 14 years of age should be employed in beet-field labor and that no children between 14 and 16 years should be permitted to work longer than 8 hours a day, exception being made, however, in both cases for children in growers' families working on their parents' own farms.[15]

It is customary for the children in the beet fields to work for very long hours at strenuous labor. According to the Children's Bureau 1935 survey, about half of the child workers under 14 years of age as well as those 14 or 15 years of age were reported by their parents to be working in the beet fields usually for 9 or more hours a day. This long workday was common despite the 8-hour provision in the production-control contracts under the Jones-Costigan Act.

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[13] U. S. Children's Bureau Publication No. 115: Child Labor and the Work of Mothers in the Beet Fields of Colorado and Michigan, Washington, 1923, pp. 12, 34, 94. (Included owner and tenant families doing hand labor in the beet fields as well as families of laborers.)

[14] U. S. Children's Bureau. Mimeographed statement, March 28, 1937, p. 1. Washington, 1937.

[15] U. S. Department of Agriculture. Agricultural Adjustment Administration. Sugar-beet production adjustment contract (Form Sugar 3), approved October 16, 1934. Washington, 1934.

The improvement with respect to child labor that was made under the Jones-Costigan Act was achieved by warnings to growers regarding the terms of the child-labor standards in the production-adjustment contracts and by reliance on complaints of violation of these terms. No systematic provisions for obtaining evidence of age for children or inspecting beet fields for child labor during the working periods had been developed before the labor provisions of the Jones-Costigan Act were invalidated.

Reports from observers indicate that many young children worked in the beet fields in 1936 and that very probably there was an increase over 1935.[16] Since September 1, 1937, when the Sugar Act of 1937 became effective, growers have been informed of its child-labor provisions.

The work of young children in the beet fields is a matter of great concern not only because of the physical tax on the children at work and because of its depressing effect on wage rates, but also because of its interference with school attendance and educational progress. The Children's Bureau survey of 1935 reported enrollment and school absence during the school year 1934–35 for children in families who did beet work both in 1934 and in 1935. It was found not only that the children who topped beets were out of school during the harvest period but also that many children did not enter school for the few weeks in September before topping work began. Likewise, in some localities it was found that the same children had lost several weeks of school in the spring before the close of the term on account of work in the beet fields. During the school year 1934–35, 90 percent of the children between 6 and 16 years of age had enrolled in school and of those that were enrolled more than half were absent in the spring, or the fall, or both, on account of their own work in the beet fields or that of their families. Of the children under 16 years of age who missed school because of their own work in the beet fields or that of their families, more than one-fourth were absent for 45 or more school days, and the majority were absent for at least 25 school days, counting only absences attributed to their own work or that of their families. The longer periods of school absence were found to be more frequent, naturally, among the children in families that migrated to obtain work in the beet fields. It has been reported that in areas in New Mexico from which families are recruited for beet-field labor the number of pupils in attendance at school drops off 50 percent during the months

[16] The American Child, September 1936, p. 1: The Beet Fields Revisited, by Charles E. Gibbons. See also Recommendations by Industrial Commission of Colorado in the matter of *Colorado Conference of Beet Field and Agricultural Workers Unions, employees,* v. *The Great Western Sugar Co., and The Sugar Beet Growers of the State of Colorado, employers,* May 7, 1937, p. 1; File No. 2684. Also confirmed by a field survey in Colorado conducted in 1937 by the Works Progress Administration.

of September, October, and November and again during the latter part of May and in June.[17]

The children of beet laborers, handicapped by extended absence from school, frequently fail of promotion in their school grades. The Children's Bureau survey of 1935 found that more than half of the children between 10 and 16 years of age who had worked in the beet fields in 1934 were retarded one or more grades. A fifth of these children were retarded three or more grades.[18] A study of beet workers on relief in Weld County, which is located in northern Colorado, showed that, among the children 14 and 15 years of age in the families surveyed, half had completed no more than the fifth school grade, and that among all persons 16 years of age and over, barely half had completed more than the third grade.[19] The Children's Bureau 1935 survey found that many parents whose young children were working in the beet fields and missing school did not want their children to work in the beet fields, but they felt that it was necessary to have the children's help in order that the family might handle as many acres and thereby earn as much money as possible.

Acreage and Duration of Work

The number of acres that a family or an individual worker can handle in a season is a major factor limiting the earnings of beet workers. In 1933 the average amount handled per contract worker was estimated at 6.94 acres, on the basis of reports from sugar companies to the United States Tariff Commission.[20] An average of 7.9 acres per worker for the thinning process is shown by the Children's Bureau 1935 survey for 1,485 family members who worked full time while the family group had work in the beet fields.

The condition of each local labor market as well as local conditions of soil and climate appear to govern the average number of acres handled by an individual worker. The Children's Bureau figures for 1935 for family members, referred to above, show average acreages for the thinning process ranging from 5.3 per worker in the Arkansas Valley and Western Slope, Colo., to 12.6 per worker in southern

[17] Report of Proceedings of Regional Sugar Beet Conference, Denver, Colo., March 19 and 20, 1937, held by representatives of the Works Progress Administration, the U. S. Employment Service, the Colorado State Department of Public Welfare, with representatives of sugar companies, growers, and labor organizations, p. 16. Denver, Works Progress Administration, 1937. (Mimeographed.)

[18] U. S. Children's Bureau. Mimeographed statement, March 28, 1937, p. 2. Washington, 1937.

[19] Colorado State Agricultural Experiment Station, Fort Collins, Colo., and Rural Section, Division of Social Research, Federal Works Progress Administration. Research Bulletin No. 4; Beet Workers on Relief in Weld County, Colorado, by Olaf F. Larson. Washington, May 1937, pp. 18, 19. (Mimeographed.)

[20] Abbott, W. Lewis: Report for the Committee on Labor Conditions in the Growing of Sugar Beets, Washington, 1934, p. 8. (Mimeographed.)

Michigan. The area averages reported by the Children's Bureau survey in 1935 show the following variations:

	Acres thinned per full-time worker [1]
All areas	7.9
Arkansas Valley, Colo	5.3
Western Slope, Colo	5.3
Northern Colorado	6.7
Southern Montana	6.9
Sidney, Mont	7.9
Northern Wyoming	8.3
Central Michigan	8.5
Southern Minnesota	8.8
Western Nebraska	8.8
Southern Michigan	12.6

[1] Based on the number of family members working full time, that is, the number working usually for at least 7 hours a day and on approximately as many days as any member of the family had work. The figures on acres handled at other processes vary slightly from these figures for the thinning process, because the total amount of work obtained by each family was often different at the different processes. Acreages for the hoeing process average, for those workers doing hoeing work, somewhat higher than acreages for thinning and for topping, because fewer persons are engaged in the hoeing process.

The long growing season in southern Michigan made possible the handling of relatively large acreages per worker in that area. However, it is also significant that southern Michigan was the only area surveyed in which the sugar-beet laborers had a collective agreement with the beet growers and some control over the number of beet workers to be hired. At the opposite extreme, the southern Colorado area, for which the lowest average acreage per worker was reported, had a very abundant supply of experienced beet laborers.

There are also great variations from area to area in the number of days that beet workers are engaged at their labor in the beet fields that closely parallel the variations in the number of acres worked. The Children's Bureau survey reports total days worked during the 1935 beet season by the fathers of 405 families in Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, and Wyoming. A fourth of the fathers of these families worked in the beet fields for fewer than 40 days in the year. The average (median) number of days worked by these 405 fathers was 56. In every area for which this information was obtained there were some families doing beet work at least 70 days in the year. Total working days of 80 to 100 for the season were reported not infrequently for Michigan and Minnesota, although such duration of work was found to occur very rarely for the beet region of the Mountain States. It should be noted that these figures from the Children's Bureau 1935 survey do not include California, where work at the hand-labor processes is reported to be done during more weeks in the year than in other regions.

The acreage of beet work handled, considered on a family basis, depends not only on the availability of work but also on the number of

workers in the family. The Children's Bureau study shows that half of the 746 families reporting the acreage of beets thinned in 1935 handled less than 18 acres per family. The percentage distribution of these families by total acreage thinned was as follows:

	Percent
Less than 10 acres	21
10, but less than 20 acres	35
20, but less than 30 acres	19
30 acres and more	25

The average number of persons 14 years of age and over per family who worked in the beet fields, as found by the Children's Bureau 1935 survey, was 2.7, although each person did not in every case work at all processes for which the family had beet work; the average number, including workers under 14 years of age, was 3.0 beet workers per family.

Relevant to any consideration of the length of the working season and its relation to beet earnings is the extremely long working day characteristic of beet labor. For thinning and topping work when the pressure is greatest, working hours, as reported for 1935 by families included in the Children's Bureau study, were at least 12 a day for half of the fathers of the families at thinning time and at least 11 hours a day for half of them at topping time. The working week was 6 and sometimes 7 days. The great pressure and long hours arise from a desire of the laborers to earn as much as possible in the short working periods and are accentuated by the fear that the grower may decide that it is necessary to hire extra help to finish the work on the acreage for which the laborer has the contract, and thereby reduce the laborer's net earnings.

Wage Rates

Wages for contract beet labor are paid according to acreage worked. The basis is usually a fixed amount per acre for the thinning and hoeing work and a sliding scale for the topping work depending on yield, with or without a guaranteed minimum per acre for the topping. The 1937 labor-contract form issued by the Mountain States Beet Growers Marketing Association and generally used in northern Colorado, the largest concentrated beet-growing area, provided a basic wage rate of $20.50 [22] an acre, made up as follows:

	Per acre
For blocking and thinning	$8.00
For hoeing	1.75
For weeding	1.25
For pulling and topping	[1] 9.50

[1] Up to and including 12 tons per acre harvested; and 65 cents for each additional ton harvested in excess of 12 tons per acre.

[22] An alternative option offered in this contract form for the year 1937 was a minimum basic rate of $19.50 to be increased to a point equal to the total price received by the grower for 3 tons of sugar beets, including United States Government benefits other than soil-conservation payments, if this amounted to more than $19.50 per acre. This contract form also provided that the basic rate might also be reduced by $1 an acre if the fields were mechanically blocked.

Wages for beet labor vary from area to area. There is a definite tendency for wage rates to be higher in northern Wyoming and southern Montana than in northern Colorado and western Nebraska, and for rates in northern Colorado to be higher than in southern Colorado. In 1937 the basic rate per acre for a normal yield of 12 tons was $23 in northern Wyoming and southern Montana, and $20.50 in northern Colorado and western Nebraska; and for a normal yield of 10 tons it was $18.10 for the Arkansas Valley, Colo. This tendency for wage rates to be lower toward the South parallels a difference in relative abundance of the supply of resident beet laborers, the lower wage rates being paid where the labor supply is more plentiful, and to some extent parallels a difference in average sugar production per acre of beets. Wage rates per acre tend to be lower in the unirrigated eastern beet region than in the western irrigated areas where yields tend to be higher. A wage rate often used in central Michigan in 1937 for a normal yield of 8 tons was $17 per acre. Although no single wage-rate figure can be given for California that is representative of the State as a whole, available data for 1937 indicate that the prevailing wage in an important beet-growing district in northern California was $21.42 an acre for a normal yield of 12 tons and that the prevailing wage in an important beet-growing district in the southern part of the State was $17.95 for a normal yield of 11 tons. Prevailing wages, as they are indicated by the printed labor-contract forms issued by associations of growers or by sugar companies, are shown in the accompanying table for certain important producing areas for the 3 years 1935, 1936, and 1937.

Prevailing Wage Rates for Hand Labor in Sugar-Beet Fields in Selected Producing Areas in 1935, 1936, and 1937

Producing area, and year	Normal yield (in short tons) per acre, assumed for rate-making purposes	Prevailing rate of wages per acre [1] for—					
		All processes for assumed normal yield	Blocking, thinning, and hoeing	Pulling and topping			
				Rate for assumed normal yield	Minimum guaranteed rate	Rate per ton	
						Up to assumed normal yield	Above assumed normal yield
Central Michigan:							
1935	8	$15.00	$7.50	$7.50	$7.50	[2]	$1.00
1936	8	[3] 16.00	[4]	[4]	[4]	[4]	[4]
1937	8	17.00	10.00	7.00	6.00	[5] $1.00	[5] 1.00
Southern Michigan and Ohio:							
1935	[6]	19.00	10.00	9.00	9.00	[6]	[6]
1936	8	17.20	10.00	7.20	5.00	.90	.90
1937	8	18.00	10.00	8.00	8.00	1.00	1.00
Southern Minnesota:							
1935	8	[7] 15.00	[7] 10.00	5.00	5.00	[2]	.60
1936	8	[7] 18.00	[7] 12.00	6.00	6.00	[2]	.75
1937	8	[7] 18.50	[7] 12.50	6.00	4.00	[2]	[8] .75
Northern Colorado and western Nebraska:							
1935	12	19.50	10.50	9.00	[9]	.75	.60
1936	12	[7] 19.50	[7] 10.50	9.00	[9]	.75	.60
1937	12	[7] 20.50	[10] 11.00	[11] 9.50	[11] 9.50	[12]	.65
Arkansas Valley, Colorado:							
1935	10	17.50	10.00	7.50	[9]	.75	.60
1936	10	16.25	10.00	6.25	[9]	.625	[13] .50
1937	[14] 10	18.10	11.00	[14] 7.10	[9]	[14] .70	[14] .60
Northern Wyoming and southern Montana:							
1935	12	21.50	12.50	9.00	[9]	.75	.60
1936	12	[7] 21.50	[7] 12.50	9.00	[9]	.75	.60
1937	12	[7] 23.00	[7] 13.40	9.60	[9]	.80	.80
Northern California: 1937	[15] 12	[15] 21.42	10.50	[15] 10.92	6.30	[15] .91	[15] .91
Southern California: 1937	[15] 11	[15] 17.95	7.50	[15] 10.45	7.50	[15] .95	[15] .95

[1] The 1935 wage rates given for northern Colorado and western Nebraska, for northern Wyoming and southern Montana, and for Arkansas Valley, Colo., are the minimum rates which were established by the Secretary of Agriculture under the Jones-Costigan Act, and are specified in the labor-contract forms used in these areas in 1935. The wage rates for southern Michigan and Ohio in 1935 are those provided in the agreement between the beet laborers' union and the growers' association in that year. The other figures given are the wage rates provided in the suggested labor-contract forms prepared by the growers' association or the sugar company dominant in the area. The figures given for Michigan are the rates stated in the contract form printed by the leading company of the area; the prevailing wage rates in a number of the factory districts in central Michigan vary somewhat from the figures given. For northern and for southern California the figures given are those for 1 large factory district in the northern and 1 in the southern part of the State; available data do not indicate to what extent these figures are typical for northern or for southern California.

[2] No tonnage rate, because there was a guaranteed minimum rate per acre for the assumed normal yield.

[3] Based on informal reports.

[4] No information available.

[5] $6 per acre for yields of 7 or fewer tons per acre, plus $1 per additional ton up to 12 tons per acre, plus 50 cents per additional ton above 12 tons per acre.

[6] No assumed normal yield and no tonnage rate, because a fixed wage was paid for topping regardless of the yield.

[7] A reduction of $1 per acre was provided in the rate for summer work (blocking, thinning, and hoeing) in mechanically blocked fields, except in Minnesota and in some localities in Wyoming. In Minnesota reductions of more than $1 were provided, and in 1936 and 1937 the labor contract in certain localities in Wyoming stated that there should be no reduction from the prevailing wage rate because of mechanical blocking.

[8] $4 per acre for yields of 4 or fewer tons per acre, plus 50 cents per additional ton up to 8 tons per acre, plus 75 cents per additional ton above 8 tons per acre, with a maximum rate of $9 per acre.

[9] No minimum guaranteed rate.

[10] Figures apply only to northern Colorado. In western Nebraska for blocking, thinning, and hoeing the rate was $11.50 per acre; for topping 75 cents per ton up to 12 tons per acre, plus 65 cents per ton above 12 tons per acre with no guaranteed minimum. See also footnote 7.

[11] Figures apply only to northern Colorado. In western Nebraska for blocking, thinning, and hoeing the rate was $11.50 per acre; for topping, 75 cents per ton up to 12 tons per acre, plus 65 cents per ton above 12 tons per acre with no guaranteed minimum.

[12] No tonnage rate, because there was a guaranteed minimum rate per acre for the assumed normal yield. See also footnote 11.

[13] 62.5 cents for each ton up to 12 tons per acre, plus 50 cents per ton above 12 tons per acre.

[14] For a yield of 12 tons per acre the rate was $8.50 per acre; for a yield of less than 12 tons per acre the rate was reduced by 70 cents for each ton by which the yield fell below 12 tons per acre; for a yield of more than 12 tons per acre the rate was increased by 60 cents for each ton by which the yield exceeded 12 tons per acre.

[15] The contract wage rates given for northern California and for southern California for topping are based on a sliding scale, the rate per ton varying in accordance with the yield per acre. There is no assumed normal yield in the contracts used. The figures given show the normal yield for the districts represented and the topping rate for the normal yield stated for each district.

The trend in wage rates for beet labor over the past 3 years has been toward a slight increase in the rate per acre. The 1937 contract in northern Colorado at a basic minimum rate of $20.50 an acre for all processes increased the rate $1 over the basic rate set for that area by the Secretary of Agriculture for 1935, which provided $19.50 an acre for all processes for a yield of 12 tons per acre. The 1935 rate was made up of a flat rate of $10.50 per acre for blocking, thinning, hoeing, and weeding and 75 cents a ton for pulling and topping for each ton harvested per acre up to and including 12 tons per acre, and 65 cents for every ton harvested in excess of 12 tons per acre. The basic rate of $19.50 for 1935 was not, therefore, a guaranteed minimum for the season's work on an acre, as was the rate of $20.50 for 1937. The obtaining in 1937 of a guaranteed minimum rate per acre for topping in this area was a gain for the laborer that was probably more important than the increase of $1 in the total rate for a 12-ton yield. The workers say there is much less variation in the amount of work required to harvest an acre of beets than in the tons produced per acre, there being approximately the same number of beets to handle for a moderately small as for a normal or a large yield.

Actual earnings per acre by families of beet laborers, particularly where the prevailing rate calls for a sliding scale for topping, vary from family to family far more than a summary of wage rates will show. In 1935 earnings received per acre among 305 families in several areas reporting this information to the Children's Bureau showed a range of from $10 to $25 per acre for all hand-work processes. Within one area the range in earnings per acre was in some instances as much as $10.

Yearly Earnings

For beet work in 1935, earnings on a family basis have been reported in two studies. An average of $222 earned per family from beet work in the year 1935 was reported for the sample group of beet workers on relief in Weld County, Colo.[23] In the Children's Bureau 1935 survey, which was not limited to families receiving relief, average (median) annual earnings from hand work in the beet fields, in northern Wyoming, Montana, Minnesota, and Michigan, were $340 for the 377 families reporting, half of the families earning less than this amount for beet work done in the year 1935, and half earning more. However, because of great differences in the number of workers per family, in the number of acres handled, and in the earnings per acre,

[23] Beet Workers on Relief in Weld County, Colo. (This study is based on 192 cases, of which 12 included only 1 person and 180 included 2 or more persons. These cases are a 25-percent sample of "Spanish-American and Mexican" rural cases receiving emergency relief in Weld County (which is in northern Colorado) in the year ended February 29, 1936. Although the sample includes only relief cases, beet workers receiving relief nevertheless comprised a large part of the beet-labor population of the county. According to the Children's Bureau survey, which also included Weld County, Colo., 73 percent of all beet workers interviewed in that county had been on relief during the period of approximately a year ending October 31, 1935.)

the range in earnings per family for beet work was wide. The annual earnings of these 377 families for beet work were distributed as follows:

	Percent
Less than $200	30
$200, but less than $400	28
$400, but less than $600	20
$600 and more	22

The number of persons to a family averaged 6.4 for the families included in this survey.

The amount of beet earnings on the basis of individual workers was not more than $130 per worker in half the families reporting yearly earnings to the Children's Bureau. A wide variation is also noticeable in annual earnings per worker as well as per family. In 33 percent of the families reporting in the Children's Bureau survey the beet earnings amounted to less than $100 a year per worker; and a total of $150 or more a year per worker was reported for only the 38 percent having the highest earnings.

Beet workers in the Mountain States and eastern beet regions have, for the most part, no employment during the 6 winter months and have only occasional employment during August and September, when the beet crop requires little or no attention. The concentration of sugar-beet culture about a limited number of sugar factories, and the fact that a large part of the sugar-beet industry has been developed in the sparsely settled Mountain States, accounts in part for this lack of opportunity for employment in other industries. Although the Mountain States suffer the greatest handicap in this respect, the eastern beet region, and to some extent California likewise, is involved in this lack of year-round work opportunities for beet laborers.

In northern Colorado, among beet workers' families that were on relief in 1935 the average income in a year from sources other than beet labor or public assistance was reported as $42.[24]

Of the families included in the Children's Bureau 1935 survey one family in eight had no cash income whatever in addition to that from beet work and from relief. Among the families that did receive some supplementary cash income, the average (median) amount earned or otherwise received was similar to the figure reported for the Weld County families—$51 a family in the period of approximately a year ending with the close of the 1935 beet season. This additional income was usually for agricultural labor on crops other than beets. Only one-sixth of the families in the Children's Bureau study having a supplementary cash income other than relief reported receiving as much as $200 a year in addition to their beet earnings. Among the families in Michigan, where some industrial employment was available, only 30 percent received, in addition to beet earnings

[24] Beet Workers on Relief in Weld County, Colo.

and relief, an income of $200 or more in 1935. Area variations in income supplementary to beet earnings and relief are shown by the following figures from the Children's Bureau 1935 survey:

	Percent of families reporting supplementary income	*Average annual supplementary income per family (median)*
Arkansas Valley, Colo.	96	$31
Northern Colorado	91	44
Southern Montana	71	57
Western Nebraska	96	72
Northern Wyoming	89	72
Central Michigan	87	93

The restricted opportunities for employment and the limited occupational background of beet workers are further indicated by the study of beet workers in Weld County, Colo., which showed that of 192 heads of these families on relief only 13 had been employed in any occupation other than agricultural work within the past 5 years.[24]

Although no data on supplementary work are available for California beet workers, the diversified crops and the long agricultural season of that State, together with the fact that the beet fields are comparatively near urban centers, make it probable that the employment of beet workers there is more nearly continuous than that shown in the Children's Bureau 1935 survey for beet workers in other beet-growing areas of the United States.

Relief

With such low annual earnings from all sources, relief recipiency has become widespread among beet workers. The end of the working season and the reckoning with the storekeeper that follows the harvest pay day find many beet workers with little or no reserve with which to begin the winter. The Children's Bureau study included information on cash on hand at the end of the 1934 working season after the bills accumulated in providing for the day-to-day needs of the family had been met. Of the families giving this information, 38 percent reported that they had no cash left on hand after paying such bills, 31 percent had less than $60, and only 26 percent had $60 or more on hand; for the other 4 percent some cash was on hand but the amount was not reported.

Of the beet laborers' families interviewed in the Children's Bureau 1935 study, 63 percent reported receiving either direct or work relief at some time within the period of approximately a year ending with the close of the 1935 beet season. In some areas the proportion of the beet workers' families that were on relief at some time during the year was much higher than in other areas, ranging from 37 percent to 97 percent. The highest proportion of families receiving relief (97

[24] Beet Workers on Relief in Weld County, Colo.

percent) was for the Arkansas Valley in southern Colorado, where average beet acreages worked were small, wage rates for other work were low, and a water shortage had restricted crops the preceding year.

The large amount of public assistance required, under prevailing wage rates and available opportunities for beet and other work, to maintain the workers over the winter months is suggested by the recent report of beet workers on relief in Weld County, Colo. The average amount of public assistance, including project work of the Works Progress Administration and other public aid, received by the 192 families included in the sample was $172 a year, nearly as much as the total beet earnings of these families, which averaged $222 for the year. The average amount of public assistance received was 39 percent of the total average annual income from all sources ($436) for the year ended February 29, 1936.[24] These Weld County beet workers received public aid in an average of 5.7 months in this period of 1 year. Similar findings on the number of months that beet workers depended on relief are reported for the families of beet laborers interviewed by the Children's Bureau in several beet-growing areas. Among the families receiving relief in the period of approximately 12 months ended October 31, 1935, half had received such relief in at least 6 calendar months.

Many of the beet laborers' families that were not supported by public assistance or private relief during the winter months lived without cash resources by obtaining the most needed commodities on credit extended by local stores or the local sugar company against their next season's earnings. Such families may have had less to live on than those on relief. Availability of relief for beet workers varied to a marked extent from locality to locality; in rural communities particularly there was frequently reluctance to give public assistance to such persons.

Living Conditions

The very low plane of living among beet workers is apparent in the overcrowding of their small houses, which are sometimes not even weatherproof, in the meagerness of their diet, in the lack of warm clothing, and in the infrequency of recreational and social activities.

As to housing, the Children's Bureau found in 1935 that 45 percent of the families lived in houses of not more than two rooms and that more than one-sixth of the families were living in houses with four or more persons to a room.

The actual impoverishment of most beet laborers' families is suggested further by figures on total cash income per person from all sources. Among the Weld County beet workers on relief the total annual cash income per person, including relief, averaged $78, and

[24] Beet Workers on Relief in Weld County, Colo.

excluding relief it averaged $47.[24] For the families of beet laborers surveyed in the Children's Bureau study, the amount of cash income per family member, excluding relief, was $75 or less for a year for half of the families reporting. The meagerness of such incomes is indicated by a comparison with the amount of money needed to buy an adequate diet at minimum cost in 1935, according to the standards of the Bureau of Home Economics of the United States Department of Agriculture. Based on average prices in the United States, the cost of food for an adequate diet at minimum cost, according to this standard, is $110 per family member.[25] Although some beet workers receive housing free of charge from the grower or the sugar company at least during the working season, the workers need money to pay not only for food but also for clothing, household sundries, fuel, transportation, doctors' bills, and other needs. The beet workers do not supplement their wages to any large extent through raising their own vegetables or keeping livestock.

Labor Organization Among Beet Workers

A movement among beet workers to improve their conditions of living through organization into labor unions has arisen in recent years. The opportunity in 1934 and 1935 to have minimum wages set for beet labor by the Secretary of the United States Department of Agriculture was a stimulus to it. Various local groups of beet workers from the Mountain States' beet-growing localities held a convention in January 1935 and drew up a resolution calling for a wage of $23 an acre for beet labor and urged this rate at hearings held by the Secretary of Agriculture prior to the establishment of rates for certain areas under the Jones-Costigan Act.[26] A number of local unions of beet workers became affiliated as Federal locals with the American Federation of Labor in 1935 and 1936, and the Colorado Conference of Beet Field and Agricultural Unions was then formed. This conference asked for a wage of at least $23 an acre for beet labor in 1936 and for at least $25 an acre in 1937. It has also been active in defending claims of the beet workers to relief and to employment on projects under the Works Progress Administration and in protesting against the importation of labor into the State to work at wages below those the unions have attempted to obtain. In southern Michigan and Ohio the beet workers, organized in federal local unions of the American Federation of Labor, obtained in 1935 a collective agreement providing a rate of $19 an acre for beet labor,[27] which was higher than wages prevailing

[24] Beet Workers on Relief in Weld County, Colo.

[25] Computed by the Children's Bureau according to the standards of the Bureau of Home Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, on the basis of the composition of the beet laborers' families included in the 1935 study.

[26] International Labour Review, Geneva (January 1936), p. 80: Regulation of Labour Conditions in Sugar Cultivation under the Agricultural Adjustment Act, by William T. Ham.

[27] Rural Worker, April 1936, pp. 4, 5.

in the localities of central Michigan, of which none had collective agreements. Neither for Michigan nor for several other States had minimum wage rates for beet labor been established by the Secretary of Agriculture under the Jones-Costigan Act.

Local organizations of beet workers were included among the unions of agricultural, cannery, and packing-house workers whose representatives met in Denver in July 1937 to organize an international union. At that time the United Cannery, Agricultural, Packing, and Allied Workers of America was organized, and a charter was granted the new organization by the Committee on Industrial Organization. This new union reported that by November 1, 1937, it had granted charters to 28 local unions of beet workers in Colorado, Nebraska, Wyoming, and Montana, with a total membership of 3,000 beet workers. Besides carrying on organizational work among beet workers it is working for adequate consideration of the interests of the beet laborers under the Sugar Act of 1937. The demands of the union include a wage rate of $25 an acre for hand work on the beet crop of 1937, $30 an acre for the beet crop of 1938, and representation on local boards or committees which it recommends be formed to determine whether or not individual beet growers have complied with the conditions specified for eligibility to receive conditional payments under the Sugar Act of 1937.[28]

[28] In the matter of a hearing (Sugar Hearing 2) before the Secretary of Agriculture with respect to wage rates for persons employed in the production, cultivation, or harvesting of the 1937 sugar-beet crop, in the session held in Denver, Colo., October 14, 1937, pp. 51–63; in the session held in Pueblo, Colo., October 18, 1937, pp. 336–342; in the session held in Scottsbluff, Nebr., October 21, 1937, pp. 52–60; and in the session held in Billings, Mont., October 25, 1937, pp. 13–19.

HOURS OF WORK PROVIDED IN COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS IN 1937 [1]

THE 40-HOUR maximum workweek is provided in a large majority of the union agreements now in effect in the United States. Weekly hours tend somewhat to be longer in the South, but exceptions to the 40-hour week occur on an industry rather than on an area basis.

The 40-hour maximum is almost invariably established in the collective agreements in the iron and steel, stone, timber, rubber, petroleum, metal mining, and aluminum industries, and is predominant in cement manufacturing. Except for stove manufacturing, the 40-hour week is the rule in metal-fabrication agreements. The same is true in the furniture and upholstery, jewelry, pulp and paper products, and pottery industries, in merchant tailoring, and in food and agricultural processing with the exception of flour and cereal products. The general weekly maximum in building construction is 40 hours. Except for the manufacture of fur and men's and women's clothing, the 40-hour week is general in agreements in the apparel industries, as well as in book and job printing, light and power, and gas and coke manufacture.

Workweeks Shorter Than 40 Hours

Generally speaking, workweeks shorter than 40 hours are less common in union agreements than workweeks which are longer. In the agreements of only five industries is the shorter week the rule—in the glass industry, with a 36-hour week for all but continuous processes; in coal mining and fur manufacture, with a general 35-hour maximum; in men's clothing, with a 36-hour week; in women's clothing, with a prevailing 35-hour week and a few 37½-hour maxima; and in newspaper publishing, where approximately two-thirds of the workers in the industry are on a shorter workweek (and more than half of these work 37½ hours).

The 36-hour week is fairly general in agreements for motion-picture-machine operators and for about a third of the cement industry. The 35-hour week is common in nearly half of the agreements in hat manufacturing. In the rubber industry the workweek in two of the largest companies, as well as a few small plants, is 36 hours. Similarly, one large radio company works 35 hours and another 36. Less than 10 percent of the organized building-construction workers

[1] This article is based on a study of approximately 5,000 union agreements in the files of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. See pp. 347–348, for a list of the trades and industries covered.

have less than a 40-hour week, about half of these working under a 30-hour maximum and half a 35-hour maximum. Longshoremen on the Pacific coast work 30 hours a week. The other short workweeks are isolated instances, varying from 30 to 39 hours.

Workweeks Longer Than 40 Hours

In petroleum refining, aluminum, textiles, fur, men's clothing, women's clothing, and hat manufacture there are no agreements providing for workweeks of more than 40 hours. In railroad yards,[1] in the flour and cereal products and stove industries, in retail trade, among butchers, hotel and restaurant workers, in city passenger-transportation lines, and in trucking, the prevailing weekly maximum provided in collective agreements is 48 hours. In longshore work other than on the Pacific coast and in building service agreements the maximum week is 44 hours. Maritime workers are most commonly under 44-hour weekly schedules, although some workweeks are as high as 54. Some towboat workers have weeks as high as 72 and 80 hours. In agreements in the glass industry 42 hours is the usual maximum for continuous processes. Although no single schedule predominates for barbers and taxi drivers, these two have the longest workweeks—ranging from 48 to 66 and 51 to 72 hours, respectively.

Although the 48-hour week is the most common in union agreements in retail trade, other scheduled hours cover a wide range. The exceptions from the 48-hour week, more than one-third of which are higher than 48 hours, vary from 40 to 63. For butchers the range of exceptions to the 48-hour week goes as high as 74 hours per week; nearly half of the butchers' agreements provide for workweeks longer than 48 hours. In hotels and restaurants, although 48 hours is the maximum provided in a majority of the agreements, a 54-hour week prevails in about a fourth, the others ranging from 40 to 60 hours.

A small proportion of agreements fix maximum hours as high as 48 per week in the following industries or trades: Iron and steel, glass, cement, electrical equipment, automobiles and parts, pulp, furniture, upholstery, jewelry, glassware, building construction, shipbuilding, baking, tailors, cleaning and dyeing, building service, motion-picture-machine operation, printing and publishing, and gas and coke. Maxima ranging as high as 50 are provided in a few agreements in the timber, rubber, and machinery industries and for coopers; as high as 54 in the light and power industry; 60 in stove manufacture and in laundries; and 63 on city passenger-transportation lines.

[1] Railway roadmen, engineers, firemen, conductors, etc., are on a mileage rather than an hourly basis, and are therefore not included in this discussion.

Normal Hours Per Workday

Eight hours is by far the most common workday provided in collective agreements. Workdays of 6, 7, and 9 hours—about equally prevalent—are so much less common as to be relatively unimportant except in certain industries. In coal mining, the fur industry, and the manufacture of men's and women's clothing, the 7-hour day is the rule, as is the 6-hour day for motion-picture-machine operators. Short workdays, of limits varying between 6 and 8 hours, also prevail in newspaper-publishing agreements. The 7-hour maximum is established in union agreements for a major part of the hat industry and for two of the largest companies in the radio branch of the electrical-equipment industry. Longshoremen on the Pacific coast have a 6-hour working day.

Except for barbers and taxi drivers, for whom workdays longer than 8 hours are the rule, the union agreements in no industry provide a prevailing workday of more than 8 hours. A few exceptions to the 8-hour rule are found in most industries, however; they are fairly common in retail trade, and among butchers, maritime, and hotel and restaurant workers. The range of these atypical workdays is from 5 to 14 hours, the extremes being found in a few agreements covering delivery drivers. The same maximum is generally applied to each day of the week. Longer Saturday hours, however, are the rule in retail trade and among butchers, tailors, and barbers.

Normal Days per Workweek

The 5-day week, though less prevalent in union agreements than the 8-hour day, is more common than the 40-hour week. The 5-day week is the rule in basic-materials industries, in fabrication (except for stoves, pottery, and glassware), in construction, in food and agricultural processing (except for flour and cereal products), and in the apparel industries. In anthracite mining, however, a 6-day week is permissible during 12 weeks of the year. The 5-day week prevails to a less extent in the agreements in printing and publishing, in the light and power, gas and coke industries, and for merchant tailors. In bituminous-coal mining, aluminum, petroleum refining, textiles, furs, men's and women's clothing, and hats, the 5-day week is the only maximum provided in agreements.

The 6-day workweek is usual in agreements for railroad yard workers, in the bakery, pottery, and flour industries, for hotel and restaurant and retail-trade employees, for butchers, motion-picture-machine operators, and for the entire transport group with the exception of longshoremen, who commonly work 5½ days a week except on the Pacific coast where the 5-day week is established.

In the building-service and maritime agreements the 5½-day week is commonly provided. In stone manufacture and glassware no single

schedule of days per week predominates, while the 5½- and 6-day work weeks are about equally common for laundry and cleaning and dyeing workers and for barbers.

Among the exceptions to the 5-day rule in those industries where it is general, the 5½-day week is found more than twice as frequently as the 6-day maximum.

The Workday

Particularly concerned with defining the limits of the workday are agreements in retail stores and in the maritime, butcher, tailor, and barber trades. Starting time in these agreements varies from 6 to 10 a. m., with 8 a. m. the most common. Finishing time is usually 6 p. m., with instances of both earlier and later closing times. In these trades the Saturday finishing time is usually several hours later than that on weekdays, most often falling between 8 and 9 p. m.

A number of agreements did not specify the limits of the working day, but among those designated the most frequent workday starts at 8 a. m. and finishes at 5 p. m., with an hour for lunch. The workday rarely commences before 7 a. m. except for such workers as milk or delivery drivers, where starting hours may be as early as midnight. In such cases earlier starting times are sometimes set during the summer months and, less frequently, Saturday work may start at a later hour. The half-hour lunch period was specified in about half as many cases as the hour period.

Regulation of Shifts

Provisions regulating shifts are not a common feature of union agreements. In many industries, of course, the single-shift system of operation is in effect; in others, although there is multiple-shift operation, little or no provision is made in the agreements for the regulation of working time. Maritime agreements, however, usually provide for the three-shift system for unlicensed personnel while at sea. Split shifts are common for licensed seagoing personnel and in ship stewards' departments. Hotel and restaurant workers also frequently work on a split-shift basis.

A few agreements prohibit the use of more than one shift or the addition of a third shift, and others require mutual agreement before a shift may be added. Some agreements require that shift assignments be changed every week or 2 weeks. A number of agreements authorize persons to work two shifts successively at the time of the shift change in continuous processes. When a shift partner on such work fails to appear, the worker is usually required to continue on the job until the company is able to secure a substitute.

As a substitute for the 1 day of rest in 7, shift workers on continuous processes frequently receive time off on the basis of a 2-week period—

that is, a 2-day lay-off after 12 days' work. In the glass industry such workers are on a 7-day week, with a 6-hour daily maximum, and receive time off only in the form of an annual vacation.

Some shift workers on continuous processes work more hours than day workers and some work less. Consequently a differential in hours of work for such workers is not important in union agreements. A pay differential is found more frequently, though it is not a general rule.

Overtime

As a general rule overtime work is regulated in detail in union agreements rather than prohibited outright. The women's and men's clothing industries, however, are instances of an almost industry-wide prohibition of overtime work. Agreements covering portions of a few other industries prohibit overtime during designated dull seasons. In the fur industry overtime is permissible only if there are no unemployed union members. Similar provisions occur elsewhere in a few agreements, but there is no customary practice established in other industries.

The amount of overtime work is restricted primarily by requiring a penalty payment on the part of the employer for each hour of such work. The added cost thus serves as an automatic check on excessive overtime. Further restriction is placed on the amount of overtime in a number of agreements by stipulating the maximum amount permissible in a day, week, or 2-week period. Other agreements attach a higher penalty rate after a given hour, usually between 9 p. m. and 1 a. m. In a few industries, chiefly petroleum refining and newspaper printing, the equivalent of the overtime worked must be taken off later. In other cases such a practice is prohibited and payment for overtime work at the higher rate is required. The employer must frequently obtain approval from the union for overtime assignments before such work can begin.

Overtime is most often paid for at time and a half the regular rate. The double-time rate is fairly common, particularly in building construction, and there are scattered instances of overtime rates varying from slightly over the regular scale to triple time. In some cases allowances are permitted over and above the normal hours without the payment of the overtime penalty rate. This allowance varies from 2 to 2½ hours a day and from 4 to 8 hours a week.

Allowances of a somewhat different nature are those made to care for peak periods of production. Such allowances occur in agreements in the glass, machinery, leather, shoes, cleaning and dyeing, and gas and coke industries, but are common only in retail trade and the textile industry. In the former the allowance applies variously during the Christmas and Easter seasons and while taking inventory. In the

textile industry the seasonal allowance can be put into effect only after securing the consent of the employees. Seasonal allowances vary from 6 to 20 weeks a year, except in retail trade, where the seasonal period is restricted to from 2 to 5 weeks. The additional hours permitted at straight pay during this period vary from 4 to 12, with 4 the most common allowance.

Other extensions of normal hours which are found occasionally in collective agreements concern the requirements that operating engineers must get up steam in order that work may begin promptly at the starting time, that delivery-truck drivers must complete their assigned routes before stopping work, and that the handling of perishable goods must be completed by longshoremen and truck drivers regardless of the excess of working time over the usual maximum.

Most agreements provide that extensions of normal hours shall be put into effect by the employer, in conformity with the pertinent provisions of the agreement. In a considerable number of the agreements, however, a permit—either written or oral—must be secured from the union. This device is used chiefly for overtime work. In a few cases overtime or seasonal allowance can be authorized only by a joint trade committee or a permanent impartial chairman for the administration of the agreement.

Holidays

Usual annual holidays are six, although the number provided in agreements varies from 3 to 14. Barbers, and to a less extent retail clerks, frequently work half days on certain holidays. The usual six are New Year's, Memorial Day, Fourth of July, Labor Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas. Election Day, Columbus Day, Washington's Birthday, and Lincoln's Birthday are also frequently observed. In addition there are a number of State, local, and religious holidays, the observance of which is provided for in some union agreements.

It is not possible to determine, from the provisions of the agreements, the prevalence of paid holidays, but certainly the larger proportion of workers receive such days off without pay. When emergency work is required on holidays, however, a penalty pay rate is required. This of course does not apply to those whose regularly scheduled hours fall on holidays. The penalty rate is usually higher than the overtime rate, the most common being double time. In addition, a minimum amount of pay is sometimes specified—such as a half or full day's pay—even though only a few hours are worked on a holiday.

Work on Labor Day is generally prohibited or restricted to that necessary because of an emergency. Overtime work on Saturdays outside of regularly scheduled hours, and on Sundays, is ordinarily restricted in the same way as that on holidays.

Vacations

The provision for annual paid vacations is general only in collective agreements in the rubber, petroleum, and iron and steel industries, but the practice is fairly common on city passenger-transportation lines, in retail trade, and in gas and coke manufacture. Such vacations are occasionally established in agreements in the electrical-equipment, pulp and paper products, upholstery, flour and cereal products, and power and light industries and for tailors and building-service employees. Pay is usually on the basis of an average of previous earnings. In the glassware industry a general 2-week stoppage is observed each year, but this period is without pay.

As a usual rule, 1 year of service is required before vacation rights accrue, but periods varying from 2 to 5 years are also common. A limited amount of leave with pay, however, is granted in some cases after as little as 3 months' service, while other agreements require as much as 9 or 10 years' service before paid vacations are granted. These long-service requirements are especially characteristic of the rubber industry.

About equal numbers of agreements establish 1- and 2-week vacations. None of the agreements provide for vacations longer than 2 weeks, but several provide for 3-, 8-, or 10-day vacations. In several agreements the vacation is increased from 1 to 2 weeks after 2 years of service; in others after longer periods of service. Under two agreements 2 weeks' vacation is not given until after 10 years of employment. In several instances 1 day's vacation, up to a limit of 1 or 2 weeks, is given for each year of service.

Industries and Trade Groups Covered

The industries and trade groups to which the above data relate are those in which collective bargaining is extensive enough to warrant consideration of union conditions as indicative of general conditions. Inclusion of a specific industry also depended upon the adequacy of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' file of union agreements for that industry. The following list gives the industries and trade groups covered.

Basic materials:
- Aluminum.
- Cement.
- Coal mining.
- Glass.
- Iron and steel.
- Lumber.
- Metal mining.
- Petroleum refining.
- Rubber.
- Stone.

Fabrication:
- Automobiles and parts.
- Coopers.
- Electrical equipment.
- Furniture.
- Glassware.
- Jewelry.
- Machinery and parts.
- Pulp and paper products.
- Pottery.
- Stoves.
- Upholstering.

Distributive and personal service:
- Barbers.
- Butchers.
- Cleaning and dyeing.
- Hotel and restaurant.
- Laundry.
- Merchant tailors.
- Retail trade.

Apparel:
- Furs.
- Hats.
- Hosiery.
- Leather and leather products.
- Men's clothing.
- Shoes.
- Textiles.
- Women's clothing.

Food and agricultural processing:
- Baking and confectionery.
- Brewing.
- Flour and cereal products.

Construction:
- Building.
- Ships.

Transportation:
- City passenger lines.
- Longshore.
- Maritime.
- Railroads.
- Taxi.
- Trucking.

Miscellaneous:
- Building service.
- Gas and coke.
- Light and power.
- Motion-picture machine operators.
- Printing and publishing.

COMPOSITION OF LABOR FORCE IN THE MERCHANT MARINE[1]

ALIEN SEAMEN today are of relatively minor and rapidly declining importance in American ship personnel. Full citizenship has long been required of all licensed officers, and the Ocean Mail Act of 1928 required that, of the unlicensed crews of vessels employed in ocean-mail contract service, at least one-half (two-thirds after 1932) must be citizens. Later legislation extended this requirement to include the unlicensed seamen of all American ships. National legislation passed in 1936 requires that 75 percent of the unlicensed crew of all vessels flying the United States flag shall be native-born or naturalized citizens. For vessels subsidized by the Federal Government the requirements are more stringent; for them the Merchant Marine Act of 1936 specifies that the entire crew of cargo ships and a minimum of 90 percent [2] of the crew (including licensed officers) of passenger vessels must be citizens, and aliens may be employed on passenger vessels only in the stewards' department.

The proportion of citizens among unlicensed seamen has thus been gaining steadily since 1928. In that year, aliens comprised about 44 percent of all those shipped before shipping commissioners. The proportion declined to 25 percent in 1933, and by the close of 1935 alien seamen formed only 19.4 percent of all seamen, excluding officers. During 1936, the proportion of aliens, excluding officers, dropped further to 16.6 percent.[3]

Seamen of alien birth assume greater importance, however, when the number of naturalized citizens is considered. Quite naturally, the number of naturalized citizens has been increasing with the reduction in number of aliens, but to a less extent. The naturalized citizens comprised 11.0 percent of the unlicensed seamen in 1928, 17.7 percent in 1933, 19.2 percent in 1935, and 20.5 percent in 1936. Seamen of alien birth, therefore, formed 37.1 percent of all unlicensed men in 1936; this, however, was a considerable reduction from the 55.2 percent in 1928.[3]

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[1] Prepared by Frances Jones, of the Bureau's Division of Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions.

The data presented in this article were obtained in a survey made by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics in the winter of 1935–36, primarily for the purpose of ascertaining the wages in the industry. (See Monthly Labor Review, July 1937, pp. 38–55.) The information was supplemented by data from the annual reports on merchant-marine statistics published by the Bureau of Marine Inspection and Navigation, U. S. Department of Commerce.

[2] This is the ultimate minimum provided for. The act specified a minimum of 80 percent of the crew, excluding officers, during the first year, after which the percentage should be increased 5 percent each year, until citizens should comprise 90 percent of the entire crew, including licensed officers.

[3] Data in these paragraphs are from U. S. Department of Commerce, Merchant Marine Statistics, 1935 and 1936.

The British comprise the largest national group among the alien seamen. The other groups in order of numerical importance are the Spanish, Filipinos, Germans, Norwegians, Chinese, Portuguese, South Americans, Central Americans, Dutch, Swedish, etc. In the coastal trade, however, the British come after the Spanish and Filipinos. Chinese are found more extensively in the foreign than in the domestic trade, particularly on the Pacific coast.

A distribution, made by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, of employees (including licensed officers) on a single voyage of 296 vessels in 1935, according to citizenship, indicated that the largest proportion of alien seamen were in the stewards' department of passenger vessels (table 1). About 13 percent of the entire crew of passenger vessels were aliens in the stewards' department, but only 1 percent were aliens in the deck department and slightly more than 1 percent in the engine room. On cargo vessels, less than 3 percent of the entire crew were aliens in the stewards' department, and an additional 4 percent were divided about equally between the deck and engine departments. Tankers had 3.9 percent alien seamen in the stewards' department, with about 1 percent in each of the other departments. Whereas Chinese predominated among aliens in the stewards' department of passenger vessels, Filipinos were the major group in that department on cargo ships and tankers.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Distribution of Seamen Aboard 296 Vessels by Citizenship, Department, Service, and Trade, 1935*

Service and trade	Total number of seamen	Percentage distribution of seamen in—								
		All departments			Deck department		Engine department		Stewards' department	
		All seamen	Citizens	Aliens	Citizens	Aliens	Citizens	Aliens	Citizens	Aliens
Total	20,523	100.0	[1]88.2	11.8	31.4	1.4	27.1	1.6	29.7	8.8
Passenger service	11,534	100.0	84.4	15.6	22.8	1.0	19.9	1.3	41.7	13.3
Freight service	7,366	100.0	93.0	7.0	42.2	2.0	36.2	2.2	14.6	2.8
Tanker service	1,623	100.0	93.9	6.1	43.5	1.2	37.6	1.0	12.8	3.9
Foreign trade	11,781	100.0	87.3	12.7	29.6	1.1	26.4	1.3	31.3	10.3
Domestic trade	8,742	100.0	89.3	10.7	33.7	1.8	28.2	2.1	27.4	6.8

[1] These vessels showed a higher total percentage of citizens than was indicated by more complete figures compiled by the Department of Commerce, as shown in Merchant Marine Statistics, 1935, p. 80.

American Negroes accounted for a little more than 6 percent of all seamen (including licensed officers), according to data obtained by the Bureau from the crew lists of 352 vessels in 1935. (See table 2.) They, too, were more numerous in the stewards' department of passenger liners than in any other department or service. They, also, were confined to the unlicensed ranks, although a few were petty officers and several occupied similar positions in the stewards' department.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage of American Negroes Among All Seamen Aboard 352 Vessels, by Department and Service, 1935*

Department and service	All seamen	Percentage of American Negroes
Total	23,268	6.2
Deck department	7,726	2.3
Engine department	6,712	1.3
Stewards' department	8,770	13.3
Passenger service	12,806	8.3
Freight service	8,779	4.1
Tanker service	1,623	.0

Age of Seamen

Older men comprised a substantial segment of the deep-water shipping personnel. Sixty-two percent of the men in the sample reporting age were 30 years old or over. Approximately one-fourth (27.5 percent) were 40 years of age or older; these men represented practically all occupational groups aboard ship. The seamen as a group, however, were relatively young, compared to all men gainfully occupied (table 3).

TABLE 3.—*Age Distribution of Male Employees on Deep-Sea Vessels, 1935, Compared With All Male Workers, 1930 Census*

Age	Cumulative percentage		Age	Cumulative percentage	
	All gainfully occupied males [1]	Male workers on American-flag deep-sea vessels		All gainfully occupied males [1]	Male workers on American-flag deep-sea vessels
Under 16 years	1.2	0.0	Under 50 years	76.6	92.4
Under 18 years	3.7	.3	Under 55 years	84.5	97.0
Under 20 years	7.9	3.9	Under 60 years	90.4	99.2
Under 25 years	20.5	20.2	Under 65 years	94.8	99.7
Under 30 years	32.9	38.4	Under 70 years	97.6	100.0
Under 35 years	44.6	56.0	Under 75 years	[2] 99.1	[3]
Under 40 years	56.6	72.5			
Under 45 years	67.2	84.1	Total	38,077,804	17,187

[1] Fifteenth census of the United States, 1930.
[2] There were 5/10 of 1 percent 75 years and older, and the age of 1/10 of 1 percent was unknown.
[3] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent were 70 years old and over.

The sample for which age data were compiled by the Bureau covered 17,187 male employees of all ranks who shipped aboard 274 vessels in the foreign and coastwise trade. These ships operated from the Atlantic, Gulf, and Pacific seaboards, and they included 162 freight vessels, 77 passenger liners, and 35 tankers. The Pacific coast steam schooners were not represented, as the company records did not contain age data; their inclusion would probably have raised the age

level slightly, as information indicates that they are manned by an older group of persons than is common in other deep-sea services.

The age range of shipboard employees was extremely wide. The oldest man was 80, and the youngest was 16. According to table 4, the average age of the 55 occupational groups of male workers ranged from 47 years for masters to 20 years for cadets. More than one-half of the 55 occupational groups had an average age of 35 years or more, and for only 8 groups was the average below 30 years.

TABLE 4.—*Average Age of Male Employees on Deep-Sea Vessels, by Department and Occupation, 1935*

Department and occupation	Number of employees	Average age
All departments	17,187	33.8
Masters	228	47.0
Deck officers		
Chief officers	42	37.9
First mates	308	40.1
Second mates	297	37.1
Third mates	289	32.8
Junior mates	45	27.2
Engine officers		
Chief engineers	290	44.9
First assistant engineers, executive	23	37.9
First assistant engineers, standing watch	293	38.0
Second assistant engineers	299	36.1
Third assistant engineers	291	34.0
Junior engineers	226	33.9
Radio		
Radio operators	265	31.7
Radio assistants and thirds	132	28.5
Unlicensed men, deck department		
Carpenters	144	44.5
Boatswains	251	37.3
Quartermasters and wheelsmen	366	29.8
Other petty officers	176	40.7
Able seamen	1,946	33.3
Ordinary seamen	682	24.5
Cadets [1]	211	20.3
Apprentices [1] and deck boys	79	21.0
Unlicensed men, engine department		
Chief refrigeration engineers and chief electricians	118	37.7
Second and third refrigeration engineers and electricians	125	33.7
Other petty officers	272	37.8
Oilers and water tenders	1,409	31.9
Unlicensed men, engine department—Continued		
Firemen	1,065	32.8
Wipers and coal passers	596	30.0
Stewards' department		
Chief stewards	221	43.7
Second stewards	66	38.3
Third stewards	73	39.3
Chefs	101	40.4
Chief bakers	68	40.6
Chief butchers	64	42.1
First cooks	157	39.3
Second cooks	302	36.0
Third cooks	79	36.1
Miscellaneous other cooks, chief buffet attendants, and chief pantrymen	272	35.3
Other bakers	75	37.7
Other butchers	40	36.1
Assistant pantrymen and buffet attendants	147	33.0
Scullions	507	31.1
Cabin stewards	458	37.9
Waiters, countermen, and salon stewards	1,444	35.5
Miscellaneous stewards (deck, bar, lounge, smoking-room, and wine)	224	32.7
Messmen	589	31.0
Messboys	455	29.2
Deck watchmen, patrol	130	38.9
Porters, laundrymen, etc	302	32.4
Bellboys	220	22.9
Other		
Pursers	72	36.4
Pursers' assistants	47	30.3
Surgeons and assistants	61	43.6
Miscellaneous clerks	186	31.5
Musicians	118	31.6
Other miscellaneous employees, pursers' and stewards' departments	241	37.4

[1] Includes a few employees in the engine department.

Within each department, in both licensed and unlicensed groups, the average age for the occupation generally varied directly with occupational rank. For example, among the engine officers, chief engineers averaged 45 years, first assistant engineers 38 years, second assistant engineers 36 years, and third assistant and junior engineers

34 years. Similarly, in the case of unlicensed men in the engine department, chief refrigeration engineers and chief electricians averaged 38 years, their second and third assistants 34 years, oilers, water tenders, and firemen 32 years, and wipers and coal passers 30 years. This points to the fact that experience and length of service play an important part in promotion from one rank to another within each group. It should be pointed out, however, that the chief petty officers are considerably older than the third assistant and junior licensed officers, so that persons promoted to the rank of junior licensed officers must usually come from the unlicensed grades lower than that of chief petty officers.

The ordinary seamen were considerably younger than able seamen, their respective averages being 25 and 33 years. In view of the fact that an A. B. certificate may be obtained after a year's experience as ordinary seaman, this difference in age is probably due to the high labor turn-over among ordinary seamen. On the other hand, the averages were 32 years for oilers and water tenders, 33 years for firemen, and 30 years for wipers and coal passers, thus pointing to the fact that the above condition does not exist to the same extent in the engine department. The average ages of many of the rank and file occupations in the stewards' department, such as waiters, cabin stewards, and assistant cooks, bakers, and butchers, were higher than the ages of the rank and file occupations in both the unlicensed deck and engine departments. Other occupations in the stewards' department, such as assistant pantrymen and buffet attendants, scullions, messmen and messboys, and porters and laundrymen, averaged about the same as the lower ranks among unlicensed men in the engine department. The youngest group in the stewards' department was the bellboys, with an average of 23 years, somewhat older than cadets.

The male employees 60 years old and over were scattered among the various ranks, but the largest single occupations were masters (10 percent of all men 60 years and over), chief engineers (9 percent), and surgeons (9 percent). Chief stewards comprised 7 percent of this group, and deck watchmen 6 percent. About 12 percent were petty officers on deck; 9 percent were licensed deck officers of various ranks; 7 percent were waiters, messmen, and cabin stewards; 5 percent were chief cooks, butchers, and bakers; and 5 percent were able seamen. A comparison of the occupational distribution of workers in various age groups is shown in table 5, in which the occupations are further combined into broad skill groups. Only 45 percent of the employees 60 years of age and over were in the lower skilled group, although this group comprised 77 percent of the total ship's personnel.

TABLE 5.—*Percentage Distribution of Male Employees on Deep-Sea Vessels According to Age, by Occupational Groups, 1935*

Occupational group	Percentage distribution of workers				
	All ages	Under 30 years	30 and under 45 years	45 and under 60 years	60 years and over
Officers and comparable personnel	23.0	13.3	27.2	33.8	54.7
Masters	1.3	(1)	1.0	5.1	10.2
Licensed men, deck department	5.7	4.0	6.7	7.1	9.5
Licensed men, engine department	8.2	4.1	10.9	10.6	11.7
Supervisory personnel, stewards' department [2]	4.4	1.3	5.2	9.4	13.1
Radio operators and assistants	2.3	3.0	2.4	.5	.7
Pursers and assistants	.7	.7	.7	.5	.7
Surgeons	.4	.2	.3	.6	8.8
Subordinate personnel	77.0	86.7	72.8	66.2	45.3
Unlicensed men, deck department	22.2	28.8	18.6	16.6	17.5
Unlicensed men, engine department	21.1	23.8	20.9	15.3	5.1
Subordinate personnel, stewards' and pursers' departments	33.7	34.1	33.3	34.3	22.7
All ranks	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of employees	17,187	6,604	7,853	2,593	137

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[2] Includes chief, second and third stewards, chefs, and chief cooks, butchers, and bakers.

Of 17,187 male employees, 1,078 or 6.3 percent were under 21 years of age. Of these young employees, 3 were 16 years old, 41 were 17, 250 were 18, 374 were 19, and 410 were 20 years old. Only 125 were cadets and 45 were apprentices and deck boys. Of the remaining 908 minors, 190 were ordinary seamen (or 27.9 percent of all ordinary seamen and 17.6 percent of all minors), of whom 6 were 17 years of age, 51 were 18, 75 were 19, and 58 were 20 years old. There were 49 able seamen among the employees of less than 21 years. In the engine department, 223 minors (19.8 percent of the total) were occupied as oilers and water tenders, firemen, and wipers and coal passers, of whom 3 were 17 years of age, 38 were 18, 75 were 19, and 97 were 20 years of age. The stewards' department, including miscellaneous workers, showed 413 employees (38.3 percent of all minors) under 21 years of age, of whom 2 were 16 years, 19 were 17, 115 were 18, 129 were 19, and 148 were 20 years of age. These employees were occupied as bellboys, messboys, messmen, scullions, waiters, countermen, porters, and laundrymen. There were also 33 employees under 21 years of age scattered among a number of miscellaneous occupations.

The 316 female workers included were, as a group, older than the male employees, the former averaging 35.7 as compared with 33.8 years for the latter (who included the older executive officers not represented among the female workers). The principal group of woman employees, namely stewardesses, cooks, maids, etc., had an average of 36 years, as compared with 34 years for the comparable class of male workers.

No woman employees were younger than 21 years; 70 percent were 30 years old or over; 33 percent were 40 years old or more, and 7 percent were 50 years old or over.

Employment Conditions

NATIONAL UNEMPLOYMENT CENSUS, 1937 [1]

ACCORDING to the voluntary registration in the National Unemployment Census of November 16–20, 1937, the number of totally unemployed, including persons on emergency relief work, was 7,822,912.

The enumerative test census which followed this voluntary registration, and which actually covered 1,950,000 persons by house-to-house canvass, indicated that the voluntary census had been 72 percent complete, so that allowance for this variation would give a projected maximum total of 10,870,000 who regarded themselves as unemployed, at the time of the unemployment census. The number of emergency relief workers included in the voluntary record as unemployed was 2,001,877. The number of females who reported themselves as totally unemployed or on emergency relief work in the voluntary registration and who are included in the above totals was 1,996,699.

The number in the 48 States and the District of Columbia registered as totally unemployed and wanting work (not including persons on emergency work) was 5,821,035. The registration was as low as 3,091 in Nevada and as high as 763,322 in New York. Slightly over one-half of the 5,821,035 unemployed wanting work (2,925,415) were in 8 States—New York (763,322), Pennsylvania (566,437), Illinois (338,055), Ohio (304,682), California (258,005), Massachusetts (248,484), Texas (229,254), and New Jersey (217,176).

Persons who registered as partly employed and wanting more work numbered 3,209,211, of whom 2,641,660 were males and 567,551, females. That the voluntary registration of these partly unemployed was only 57 percent complete was indicated by the subsequent test census. The Middle Atlantic States, including New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, had the largest number partly unemployed, totalling 715,158, of which number 580,934 were males and 134,224 were females. New York had the highest State total of partly employed who wanted more work, 319,566, including 250,264 males and 69,304 females. Pennsylvania was second with a total of 300,809, of which 257,945 were males, and 42,864 females.

The above information was conveyed to President Roosevelt by John D. Biggers, as Administrator of the National Unemployment

[1] Data are from National Unemployment Census, Washington, press releases of January 2, 3, and 8, 1938.

Census which was taken according to an act of Congress passed at the last regular session.

The Post Office Department was designated to distribute unemployment report cards to every known address in the United States, Alaska, and Hawaii.

The text of Mr. Biggers' reports to the President is given below:

Text of Reports

PERSONS TOTALLY UNEMPLOYED

As Administrator of the census of partial employment, unemployment, and occupations, I respectfully submit this preliminary report on unemployment as revealed by the voluntary unemployment registration, November 16 to 20, 1937, and our subsequent enumerative test census.

Unemployment is difficult to measure. We approached this task with an appreciation of the difficulties but with a conviction that a knowledge of basic facts was a prerequisite to a sound solution of the unemployment problem.

A voluntary registration of the unemployed was undertaken because it offered the possibility of getting the essential information more promptly and at less cost than a Nation-wide enumerative census. However, as you know, we recognized from the outset that sole reliance could not be placed upon this or any other voluntary registration. Therefore, we conducted an enumerative test census of 1,950,000 people, representing a cross section of the United States, in order to appraise the completeness and accuracy of our voluntary registration. This combination of voluntary and enumerative methods seemed to be the best procedure available within the limits of time and cost.

The painstaking care with which the unemployment report cards were filled out surpassed all expectations. Careful checks in the field and in the process of tabulation resulted in rejection of less than 6 percent of all the cards sent in, although rejections of 10 to 20 percent had been anticipated. The principal reasons for rejection were inability to work, duplicate registrations, unknown at address given, and under or over the age limit (15 to 74). Your faith in the willingness of the people to cooperate in any undertaking for their own good and that of the Nation was fully justified.

The voluntary registration of those working for W. P. A., N. Y. A., C. C. C., and on other emergency work, who, for the purposes of this census, were asked to register as unemployed was—

Males	1,662,444
Females	339,433
Total emergency workers	2,001,877

All others classified as totally unemployed, able to work, and wanting work numbered—

Males	4, 163, 769
Females	1, 657, 266
Totally unemployed workers	5, 821, 035

Thus the voluntary registration of totally unemployed, including the emergency workers, was 7,822,912 of whom 5,826,213 were males and 1,996,699 females.

The enumerative test census heretofore mentioned was taken in 1,864 areas, selected at random and distributed throughout the United States approximately in proportion to population. This house-to-house canvass covered more than 1½ percent of the population of the United States and was made by the trained personnel of the Post Office Department during the week of November 29. The questions, however, applied to the employment status of those individuals at the time of the voluntary registration.

The voluntary registrations from the identical areas have been compared with the results of this test census. According to a preliminary analysis for 1,455 areas, the voluntary registration was 72 percent of the number reported in the test census as totally unemployed, including emergency workers. The largest variation was among females. The percentage for males was 79 percent. These percentages of apparent completeness are regarded by the experts as exceptionally high for any type of voluntary registration, and are attributable to the efficiency with which the Post Office Department did its part of the job and to the exceptional support received from the press, the radio, the motion-picture industry, and the mayors' committees and other cooperating agencies in more than 4,000 cities and towns.

In determining the true measure of unemployment it is important to consider certain factors brought to light by the variation between the results of the voluntary census and of the enumerative census.

The unemployed may be divided into two classes. One class represents those regular workers for wages who always work when work is available, regardless of their immediate economic status. Work to them is not only a means of livelihood but a habit of life. These unemployed are clearly a part of the regular labor market.

There is also a second group consisting of those who are not regular workers for wages, such as housewives who seek wage jobs only when the family breadwinner is idle; daughters or sons who take jobs through choice rather than necessity; unpaid family workers on farms and in family stores who seek wage jobs only when family income needs augmenting; retired people who, because savings have been depleted, decide to enter the labor market again. To this class unemployment

is a status depending on their current inclinations and temporary economic conditions.

This second group, made up of the occasional workers for wages, might not take the trouble to respond to a voluntary registration but might readily be reminded to relate to a census enumerator their current inclination to work. For example, the proportion of women who reported themselves as unemployed was greater in the enumerative census than in the registration, though both exceed the percentage of women reporting as unemployed in the 1930 census. It is expected that our detailed analysis will throw further light on this and similar questions.

Considering all of those factors, we do not claim provable accuracy for any one figure. The true number of those who considered themselves totally unemployed, able to work and wanting work, in our opinion, lies between 7,822,912, the number who responded to the registration, and 10,870,000, the number indicated by the enumerative census.

In formulating any program for reemployment of workers in industry, based upon the results of this census, a number of considerations must be borne in mind. For example, it is not to be assumed that because a certain number of people are jobless, the same number of jobs must be created to bring a return to normal conditions. When the usual family breadwinner is idle, two or perhaps more members of his family may enter the labor market. Conversely, when the breadwinner is satisfactorily reemployed, other members of the family may withdraw from the labor market.

Then, too, you recognize—but it should perhaps be emphasized—that the number of people who reported themselves as unemployed should not be confused with the number of people who need financial assistance or relief. Many people consider themselves unemployed who are not financially compelled to work. Irrespective of their need when they seek employment, they enter the labor market and compete with others who have jobs or vitally need jobs. They are, therefore, a factor in the unemployment problem though they may never seek relief.

Our figures reflect the decline in employment during the earlier stages of the current business recession but not the subsequent trend. If you desire additional information beyond that obtainable from the usual statistical sources, it would be possible, with the cooperation of the Post Office Department, to make at any future date a cross-sectional enumeration of our test areas which should be of value to you and the Congress. This, in addition to all the other work contemplated by us, could be carried through well within the $5,000,000 budgeted for the purposes of this census.

We will submit to you tomorrow another report showing the distribution, by States, of total unemployment as revealed by the voluntary census, following which there will be made available a break-down of this information by counties and by cities of 10,000 and more population, all according to sex. Subsequently, we will give you a report on the extent of partial unemployment, National, State, county, and city, likewise according to sex.

As the tabulation progresses we will report additional facts such as the age groups of the unemployed; their occupational classification; the kinds of business or industry in which they have worked; and other related factors.

Fully appreciating the vital importance of a reemployment program and the contributing value of this information, the Bureau of the Census has cooperated with us by working three shifts a day, in order to expedite this work and permit the completion of our report to you at the earliest possible date, which will be by or before the end of March 1938.

In concluding this initial and partial report, may I express my appreciation of the personal consideration which you have given to this undertaking and of the inestimable value of your counsel and support? I believe this undertaking will prove worth while not only because it provides new facts and figures about unemployment but because the wide popular consideration of this subject has focused the attention of the Nation upon the immediate necessity of formulating a long-range program of reemployment.

TABLE 1.—*Persons Who Registered in Unemployment Census as Totally Unemployed or Working on Emergency Work, by States*

State	Persons who, between Nov. 16 and Nov. 20, were—					
	Totally unemployed and wanted work			Working at W. P. A., N. Y. A., C. C. C., or other emergency work		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
United States	5,821,035	4,163,769	1,657,266	2,001,877	1,662,444	339,433
Alabama	150,145	98,942	51,203	38,739	30,782	7,957
Arizona	12,948	10,220	2,728	8,476	7,176	1,300
Arkansas	92,149	67,832	24,317	34,254	29,037	5,217
California	258,005	182,466	75,539	91,055	68,674	22,381
Colorado	44,272	33,967	10,305	20,829	15,621	5,208
Connecticut	69,576	48,183	21,393	18,206	15,776	2,430
Delaware	8,907	6,493	2,414	2,429	1,883	546
District of Columbia	37,600	19,073	18,527	9,765	6,960	2,805
Florida	73,479	42,924	30,555	33,151	25,491	7,660
Georgia	130,803	78,715	52,088	36,587	27,573	9,014
Idaho	18,641	15,819	2,822	7,239	6,171	1,068
Illinois	338,055	246,732	91,323	121,688	106,270	15,418
Indiana	133,136	97,724	35,412	53,267	47,865	5,402
Iowa	61,531	46,760	14,771	23,765	20,324	3,441
Kansas	64,575	49,361	15,214	35,038	27,926	7,112
Kentucky	143,031	98,240	44,791	54,352	44,838	9,514
Louisiana	97,317	69,410	27,907	33,160	27,026	6,134
Maine	37,814	27,534	10,280	6,050	5,226	824
Maryland	58,288	41,518	16,770	12,947	11,237	1,710
Massachusetts	248,484	162,052	86,432	79,135	62,428	16,707
Michigan	195,016	147,445	47,571	54,172	47,914	6,258
Minnesota	98,495	75,568	22,927	45,684	38,937	6,747
Mississippi	89,584	60,654	28,930	29,377	22,455	6,922
Missouri	191,873	133,573	58,300	65,109	55,333	9,776
Montana	28,390	22,867	5,523	20,203	17,515	2,688
Nebraska	44,872	33,446	11,426	25,850	22,044	3,806
Nevada	3,091	2,571	520	1,757	1,385	372
New Hampshire	25,311	16,219	9,092	6,628	5,305	1,323
New Jersey	217,176	156,371	60,805	70,354	60,155	10,199
New Mexico	21,162	18,232	2,930	9,428	8,313	1,115
New York	763,322	537,007	226,315	206,518	178,974	27,544
North Carolina	94,711	55,270	39,441	31,030	22,471	8,559
North Dakota	26,962	22,340	4,622	18,707	15,531	3,176
Ohio	304,682	223,254	81,428	105,185	92,375	12,810
Oklahoma	114,114	85,596	28,518	58,725	48,212	10,513
Oregon	58,557	46,673	11,884	14,634	12,414	2,220
Pennsylvania	566,437	440,692	125,745	184,014	157,882	26,132
Rhode Island	43,654	27,453	16,201	14,889	12,487	2,402
South Carolina	73,227	44,268	28,959	29,401	20,694	8,707
South Dakota	26,002	20,533	5,469	23,680	19,323	4,357
Tennessee	116,142	76,266	39,876	31,956	27,609	4,347
Texas	229,254	163,223	66,031	76,355	55,643	20,712
Utah	18,848	14,959	3,889	10,945	9,223	1,722
Vermont	10,197	7,619	2,578	4,128	3,362	766
Virginia	84,487	53,372	31,115	28,112	20,329	7,783
Washington	89,871	71,196	18,675	31,078	26,574	4,504
West Virginia	86,449	69,315	17,134	34,061	29,194	4,867
Wisconsin	112,728	87,467	25,261	46,574	40,172	6,402
Wyoming	7,665	6,355	1,310	3,191	2,335	856

PERSONS PARTLY UNEMPLOYED

The voluntary registration of those partly employed and wanting more work was—

Males	2,641,660
Females	567,551
Total, partly unemployed	3,209,211

Just as soon as final tabulation of the answers to all of the 14 questions can be completed, we will make available to you and to the

Nation a wealth of data which should be helpful in formulating plans for reemployment. In fact we place much greater value upon such information than upon the enumeration approximation achieved in the fields of total and partial unemployment.

This information will include statistics as to age, color, farm or urban residence, occupational classification, industry, the number of weeks worked during the past year, the hours of employment during the week preceding registration, the number of workers in the family of each registrant and the number of persons dependent upon the registrant.

Questions regarding partial unemployment were included on the voluntary registration card, as provided by law, but with full realization of the impracticability of accurately measuring such a variable quantity. The enumerative test census, conducted over 1,455 postal routes immediately after the voluntary registration to check its completeness and accuracy, demonstrated that it is more difficult to measure partial unemployment than total unemployment. The voluntary registration of the partially unemployed was only 57 percent of the number reported in our test census, as compared with the 72-percent registration of the number reported to the enumerators as totally unemployed.

In our report on total unemployment we pointed out the difficulties of measuring the marginal group consisting of those who are not regular workers for wages. In the field of partial unemployment other factors make the appraisal even more complex. For example, it is difficult to get people to understand the important distinction between partial employment and partial unemployment. Many persons regularly work only part time and do not need or want more work. They are partially employed. Others are reduced to part-time work by force of circumstances, not by personal limitations or choice. They are partly unemployed.

Preliminary analysis indicates that a very considerable number have registered or reported themselves as partially unemployed when they clearly belong to the group of partly employed workers and should not have included themselves in either the voluntary or the test census.

Attention should also be called to the fact that the volume of partial unemployment reflects the prevalent share-the-work policy. Employers, oftentimes at the request of the workers, distribute the burden of unemployment among all of their workers to avoid imposing the extreme hardships of idleness on those who would otherwise have to be laid off. This is usually done with the hope that improved conditions will make it possible to bring all back to full-time employment, but during the interim the part-time workers may properly consider themselves partly unemployed.

TABLE 2.—*Persons Who Registered in the Unemployment Census as Partly Employed and Wanting More Work, by Sex, and by States*

Division and State	Estimated population July 1, 1937	Persons who (between Nov. 16 and Nov. 20) registered as partly employed and wanting more work		
		Total	Male	Female
United States	129,257,000	3,209,211	2,641,660	567,551
New England	8,597,000	264,397	194,180	70,217
Maine	856,000	29,048	23,695	5,353
New Hampshire	510,000	21,462	15,545	5,917
Vermont	383,000	7,798	6,484	1,314
Massachusetts	4,426,000	135,359	97,626	37,733
Rhode Island	681,000	28,225	18,217	10,008
Connecticut	1,741,000	42,505	32,613	9,892
Middle Atlantic	27,478,000	715,158	580,934	134,224
New York	12,959,000	319,566	250,264	69,302
New Jersey	4,343,000	94,783	72,725	22,058
Pennsylvania	10,176,000	300,809	257,945	42,864
East North Central	25,841,000	578,835	498,359	80,476
Ohio	6,733,000	178,538	154,183	24,355
Indiana	3,474,000	86,281	75,352	10,929
Illinois	7,878,000	162,606	137,970	24,636
Michigan	4,830,000	88,778	77,044	11,734
Wisconsin	2,926,000	62,632	53,810	8,822
West North Central	13,819,000	306,865	262,802	44,064
Minnesota	2,652,000	56,197	48,355	7,842
Iowa	2,552,000	50,337	43,936	6,401
Missouri	3,989,000	104,360	86,995	17,365
North Dakota	706,000	12,546	11,257	1,289
South Dakota	692,000	15,005	13,212	1,793
Nebraska	1,364,000	29,526	25,484	4,042
Kansas	1,864,000	38,894	33,563	5,331
South Atlantic	17,260,000	405,232	314,315	90,918
Delaware	261,000	4,317	3,501	816
Maryland	1,769,000	28,202	22,866	5,336
District of Columbia	627,000	12,164	7,252	4,912
Virginia	2,706,000	53,108	43,437	9,671
West Virginia	1,865,000	37,522	33,873	3,649
North Carolina	3,492,000	79,369	58,224	21,145
South Carolina	1,875,000	51,625	39,461	12,164
Georgia	3,085,000	88,408	66,493	21,915
Florida	1,670,000	50,517	39,207	11,310
East South Central	10,731,000	300,134	247,789	52,345
Kentucky	2,920,000	63,528	53,816	9,712
Tennessee	2,893,000	68,811	57,215	11,596
Alabama	2,895,000	102,501	82,369	20,132
Mississippi	2,023,000	65,294	54,389	10,905
West South Central	12,900,000	335,679	285,156	50,523
Arkansas	2,048,000	67,235	58,396	8,839
Louisiana	2,132,000	60,797	50,719	10,078
Oklahoma	2,548,000	61,487	53,335	8,152
Texas	6,172,000	146,160	122,706	23,454
Mountain	3,792,000	86,616	75,319	11,297
Montana	539,000	13,642	12,260	1,382
Idaho	493,000	12,698	11,676	1,022
Wyoming	235,000	4,830	4,361	469
Colorado	1,071,000	25,874	20,739	5,135
New Mexico	422,000	8,100	7,178	922
Arizona	412,000	6,609	5,730	879
Utah	519,000	13,485	12,147	1,338
Nevada	101,000	1,378	1,228	150
Pacific	8,839,000	216,295	182,806	33,489
Washington	1,658,000	49,476	43,615	5,861
Oregon	1,027,000	31,243	27,284	3,959
California	6,154,000	135,576	111,907	23,669

PLACEMENT OF AMERICAN INDIANS, 1936–37

THROUGH the employment offices of the Indian Service some 6,570 Indians were placed in employment (2,654 within the Service and 3,916 in private employment) in the year ending June 30, 1937. Two-thirds of those placed in private employment obtained permanent positions, according to the annual report of the Secretary of the Interior. The types of jobs obtained ranged from household work to highly technical positions. The follow-up work for Indian placements outside the Indian Service indicates that most of these job holders were able to adjust themselves to city industrial life.

As a general practice, Indian workers are strongly encouraged to remain on their homelands, and to use their training to solve their individual economic difficulties and to promote the economic rehabilitation of their tribes. However, when an Indian manifests a wish to get employment away from the reservation, all possible assistance is given to secure work for which he is equipped by training and experience.

Indian Emergency Employment

Over 50,000 Indians were given work by the Indian Emergency Conservation Work, from its beginning in June 1933 to June 30, 1937.[1] The daily number of men on the pay rolls for the 4 years was about 8,500, and the number of calendar days worked exceeded 11,500,000. At certain agencies employment had to be staggered.

Indians when qualified, have been given preference in supervisory positions. A large number of machine operators, mechanics, group foremen, assistant foremen, and camp assistants are Indians. For skilled and supervisory positions the record for the 4-year period is 540 Indians as against 436 whites.

The monthly wages for Indian enrollees have been, as in the camps for whites, $30 plus board, lodging, and clothing, or a monthly commutation of $15 when the enrollee lives at home and provides his own meals. The popularity of the family camps continued. Reservation staffs aided these groups in sanitation, health, and social problems.

[1] The Indian Emergency Conservation Work ended its fourth year June 30, 1937. Henceforth this activity will be designated the Civilian Conservation Corps, Indian Division.

SICKNESS INSURANCE IN DENMARK [1]

THE SOCIAL reform law of May 20, 1933, which codified the numerous social laws passed in Denmark during more than half a century, included four laws, one of which—the law governing public insurance (*Lov om Folkeforsikring*)—dealt with sickness insurance, invalidity insurance, and old-age pensions. This law, as amended May 7, 1937, covers practically the entire population but benefits specifically the workers, and persons of either no means or very limited resources. The historical background of the national insurance system was the voluntary sickness insurance for the poor, which was carried on with public support. The first law relating to sick funds was passed April 12, 1892. At that time the country already possessed an extensive network of mutual-benefit societies. This law was replaced by a new act in 1915 which was amended in 1921, the amendment being necessitated by the Invalidity Insurance Act of May 6, 1921, which provided that every member of a sickness fund without means should be compulsorily insured against invalidity until his sixty-second year. The three principles embodied in all these acts were the voluntary insurance of persons without means, subsidy from the public authorities, and supervision of the insurance institutions by State departments. The voluntary health insurance prior to the enactment of the social reform law in 1933 covered about two-thirds of the population.

Type of System

The national sickness-insurance system is based on the principle of voluntary insurance, but insurance against invalidity and the right to an old-age pension are dependent upon membership in a recognized sick fund. Under the definitions used, a sick fund is an association of persons without resources who have combined to provide mutual assistance in case of sickness by means of a specified contribution, whereas a sick-benefit society is an association of persons who cannot be considered to be without means but who have combined to provide mutual assistance in case of sickness. The latter class of

[1] Based on report by E. Gjessing, American vice consul, Copenhagen; additional data from International Labor Office (Geneva), Legislative Series 1933, and Industrial and Labor Information, October 3, 1937.

societies may, with the consent of the Minister of Social Affairs, become subject to the supervision of the Director of Sick Funds, in which case the association is called a State-inspected sick-benefit society (continuation sick fund). In order to secure recognition a sick fund must operate either for a particular trade (commerce, industry, or handicraft) or for a locality (as a rule, the area of the commune).

Coverage

All citizens of Denmark enjoying civic rights are entitled to become members of either a recognized sick fund or a State-inspected sick-benefit society. Under the laws of May 20, 1933, and May 7, 1937, the members of the sick fund, in order to receive benefits, must be "unpropertied," and an order is issued every 3 years by the Minister of Social Affairs fixing the income and property limits for the beneficiary members. The maximum income ranges, at present, from 4,200 kroner in Copenhagen to 2,800 kroner in the rural districts, and the property limitation from 14,000 kroner for heads of families to 9,000 kroner for single persons. Only persons of the working classes without means and men or women in similar economic circumstances, such as small farmers, handicraft workers, and other persons engaged in industry, public employees, etc., may become full members of a sick fund. Orphaned children up to the age of 15 years for whom no other facilities are provided for obtaining sick benefit under any legislative provisions may (subject to fulfillment of the usual economic conditions) become independent full members of a sick fund irrespective of the lower age limit, but they are entitled only to sick benefit and may not receive cash benefits. If a member's economic situation improves to such an extent that he cannot remain in the sick fund as a full member without means, he may become a contributing member of the sick fund with means if the fund has a section for such members, or he may become a member of one of the State-inspected sick-benefit societies. Admission to the sick funds is between the ages of 14 and 60, and a member's children under the age of 15 are also covered by the insurance. No person may be admitted to a sick fund as a full member while suffering from a temporary illness, nor can persons be admitted who, because of a chronic or incurable disease or a serious bodily infirmity, cannot be deemed to be capable of work. No person may be a member of more than one recognized sick fund and no member of such a fund, who also joins a nonrecognized sick fund, may secure daily cash benefit exceeding his average earnings.

Irrespective of income and property qualification, all persons between 21 and 60 years of age who are Danish citizens and are residents in Denmark or employed on a Danish vessel, and who are not full members of a sick fund or full or contributing members of a sick-

benefit society, must be contributing members of a recognized sick fund if they fulfill the required conditions as to health. Application for membership must be made not more than 3 months after attaining the age of 21, and other persons were required to apply for admission within a year after the act became operative (October 1, 1933). Every person who fails to fulfill the conditions as to health before reaching the age of 27 years is required to reapply for admission to a sick fund as a contributing member not less than 3 months before reaching the age of 30 years. Contributing members are entitled to be transferred to full membership in a sick fund, irrespective of their health and age at the time of transference, when their economic circumstances change so that they fulfill the financial requirements for beneficiary members. However, such members are not entitled to benefits until the expiration of 6 months (formerly 6 weeks) after their transference. This extension of waiting period, which was effected by the 1937 law, was intended to restrain the tendency of insured persons to remain passive members of the system (because of the smaller contribution) as long as they are young and in good health and only to move into the class of active members when older and more exposed to sickness. Not more than one State-inspected sick-benefit society may be approved for the same area. The operations of such societies are restricted to the granting of sick benefits, based on the mutual liability of members. Such societies pay an annual fee to the State treasury for inspection. Admission to membership in the sick-benefit societies for persons with means is between the ages of 14 and 40 and every such society must provide for the admission of persons who fulfill the conditions as to age and health. A contributing member who on account of his age is no longer entitled to obtain full membership rights in the sick-benefit society must be transferred to a recognized sick fund as a contributing member.

A sick fund for persons without means must as a rule have at least 200 members in order to receive and retain State recognition. The number of full members of the sick funds was about 2,100,000 at the end of 1935.

Nationals of other States residing in Denmark may be admitted to membership in the funds in cases where reciprocal agreements have been concluded with the State in question.

Contributions

The contributions of full members of a sick fund are fixed at such an amount as may be anticipated from the previous experience to be sufficient when combined with other ordinary receipts of the fund and the grants from public sources to meet the claims and to form a reserve which will be equal to the average expenses of the sick fund over the

3 preceding financial years. The fee paid by contributing members is 2 kroner per year if 25 years of age and under, and 2.50 kroner per year thereafter. An annual grant is made to the recognized sick funds by the Treasury, the amount of which is fixed in the annual finance act. The grant allocated to the individual sick funds is 2 kroner per year for each person who at the end of the year is a full member without means, plus one-fourth of the expenditures of the funds for medical treatment of members, hospitalization, daily cash benefits, dental care, maternity benefits, home nursing, and treatment in convalescent homes, etc. An additional State grant is made for persons who, though suffering from frequently recurring or incurable disease or bodily infirmity, are nevertheless considered capable of work. The communes repay to the sick funds expenditures in certain types of cases. If a full member without means or a contributing member of a sick fund is wholly or partially unable to pay the membership or invalidity premiums, because of sickness, reduction in working capacity, unemployment, etc., the commune of residence will pay the premium as long as circumstances require. The communes are assessed an amount (which is apportioned among them on the basis of the number of inhabitants, the total income of the commune, and the total taxable land value of the commune) to be applied toward payment of the cost for persons suffering from a chronic or incurable disease and of cash benefits in maternity cases.

Benefits

In case of sickness, the law specifies that the sick fund shall provide free medical attendance, free hospital treatment, a daily cash benefit, maternity care, and three-fourths of the cost of insulin and liver preparations for patients suffering from diabetes and pernicious anemia. Sick benefit may not be granted until 6 weeks after admission to membership in a fund, except in case of accident, when it is paid immediately; maternity benefit is payable after 10 months. No cash benefit may be granted for sickness which does not last more than 3 days. The 6-week qualifying period does not apply to a child who is registered before he reaches the age of 15. The daily cash benefit may not be less than 40 øre nor more than 6 kroner, nor exceed four-fifths of the beneficiary's average daily earnings prior to sickness. The benefit period may not exceed 26 weeks in each 12 consecutive months. A member, whose sickness becomes chronic or incurable, may not receive more than 3 kroner per day. A member who is in receipt of an invalidity or old-age pension may receive not more than 1 krone per day, and his benefit is limited to 13 weeks in any 12 consecutive months. Children of members may not receive cash benefits. In maternity cases the daily cash benefit is paid for a fortnight at the

same rate which the person would receive in case of sickness, and after that the daily benefit is 3 kroner, 2.40 kroner, or 1.80 kroner, according to the place of residence. The total period for which the benefit may be granted is 6 weeks. If a member has received sick benefit for 60 weeks during 3 consecutive financial years his right to receive further benefit lapses and he is transferred to the class of contributing members. He may regain full membership rights at the expiration of 12 months but must then produce a medical certificate showing that he is physically fit. A member who receives his full income during sickness is not entitled to pecuniary benefit, and if part of the income ceases the cash benefit granted must be such that the total amount will not exceed his usual income. This rule does not apply if a member's income consists solely of an invalidity or old-age pension.

Free conveyance is provided by the communal authority for persons living in the country or more than 1 kilometer outside a market town for the purpose of taking a member to a medical practitioner or midwife or to a hospital, or for bringing the doctor or midwife to the patient. In general, the distance for which conveyance is provided may not be more than 10 kilometers.

The optional benefits which a sick fund may provide include medicines (three-fourths of the cost), dental care, treatment by specialists, hospitalization in special clinics, and home nursing.

The sick-benefit funds pay the physicians employed on the basis of collective agreements between the management of the societies and medical practitioners, dentists, and midwives. The agreements must be approved by the Minister of Social Affairs. The payments may be in the form of a fixed amount annually per member, with additional payments in difficult cases and for visits at night and on holidays, or payment for each visit. Payment on an annual basis is the preferred method, as it is considered less expensive. Members are free to choose a physician within the district of the society to which they belong. The hospital charges are fixed by agreement between the sick-benefit funds and the hospitals in the districts in which the funds are located, and the rates may not exceed those charged to persons who are not beneficiary members. Such agreements are subject to the approval of the Minister of Social Affairs.

Disputes and Penalties

Loss of membership rights as a full member may be incurred for fraud and dishonesty, and repayment to the sick fund of benefits received as a result of fraudulent statements may be required. An appeal against the decision of the director in such cases may be lodged, by the member or the sick-fund committee, with the Minister of Social Affairs within 1 month.

Disputes between sick funds and medical practitioners or midwives are referred to an arbitration council consisting of a chairman and six members representing the Federation of Central Associations of Sick Funds and the Danish Medical Association.

Administration

A State sick-benefit insurance department was established in 1933 under the Ministry of Social Affairs. The Director of Sick Funds who is in charge of the department has general supervision of the funds but takes no part in their management. He presents an annual report to the Minister on the operations of the sick funds and arranges for annual meetings (for the whole country or for each Province) for the instruction of representatives of the recognized funds. Each fund may send to the annual meeting one or more representatives, elected by the governing body of the fund. A sick-fund committee, consisting of 12 members with the Director as chairman, is elected by the governing bodies of all the sick funds for a term of 4 years. This committee is required to meet at least once a year to deal with questions affecting the system of sick funds, and has power to demand audits of the accounts of the funds, to regulate the transference of members from one fund to another, and to recommend withdrawal of State recognition in cases where it is considered that the management of a fund is acting toward its members or toward other funds in such a way as to affect the whole system adversely. Annual reports covering the financial condition of the funds must be made on forms approved by the Director of Sick Funds by funds whose membership does not exceed 5,000; funds with a larger membership must meet the requirements of the Director as to their system of accounts. The reports for the year, together with the accounts duly audited and approved, must be forwarded to the Director by the funds within a time limit fixed by the Minister of Social Affairs. A thorough local audit of the accounts of all recognized sick funds must be made every 5 years by accountants belonging to the civil service.

Statistics of Operation

Most of the 1,640 sick-benefit societies are quite small, and about 75 percent have fewer than 1,000 members. Under the circumstances, the financial standing of the individual societies varies greatly. The total expenditures, according to officials of the State Sick Benefit Committee, now average 67,000,000 kroner per annum, and the total reserve funds in 1937 amounted to 44,000,000 kroner. The demands made on the funds are increasing and some difficulty is experienced in increasing the membership contribution. As a result, the reserve funds have decreased in proportion to expenditures in the past few years.

The public contributions to the sick-benefit societies have been as follows (according to officials of the Ministry of Social Affairs):

	State (*kroner*)	*Communes* (*kroner*)	*Total* (*kroner*)
1933–34	12, 815, 000	1, 750, 000	14, 565, 000
1934–35	15, 000, 000	6, 916, 000	21, 915, 000
1935–36	17, 742, 000	7, 249, 000	24, 991, 000

The Sick Benefit Societies Committee publishes statements of income and expenditure of the societies for each calendar year. The cost of administration of the sick funds amounted to slightly more than 11 percent of the total expenditures in 1934. These costs are higher in the urban than in the rural districts. The figures for 1934, the latest year available, are given in the following table:

Receipts and Expenditures of Sick-Benefit Funds in Denmark in 1934

Item	Amount
	Kroner
Receipts	61, 804, 539
Membership fees	41, 151, 035
Contributions by passive members	191, 030
Voluntary contributions by the communes	916, 933
Interest on assets	931, 217
Interest on invalid premiums and other assets	488, 009
Other	1, 859, 938
Contributions by the State and communes	16, 266, 377
Expenditures	62, 282, 569
Cash benefits	8, 795, 166
Treatment at local hospitals	8, 404, 246
Treatment of tubercular patients	766, 792
Medical treatment	16, 150, 602
Treatments by specialists	2, 308, 229
Dental treatment	2, 604, 382
Medicine	5, 669, 587
Maternity help and treatment	2, 371, 512
Treatment at private clinics	878, 408
Home nursing	892, 039
Bandages, disinfectants and spectacles	734, 621
Treatment at insane asylums	474, 441
Payments to homes for convalescents	663, 514
Insulin and liver medicines	308, 577
Massage and medicinal baths	464, 747
Administration expenditures	7, 000, 077
Miscellaneous	1, 034, 008
Sick benefits to older members [1]	1, 041, 347
Benefits to chronically sick members	1, 720, 274

[1] Persons who had reached the pensionable age at the time the act became operative.

UNEMPLOYMENT-BENEFIT ACT OF UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA [1]

THE UNEMPLOYMENT benefit plan lately introduced in the Union of South Africa establishes separate insurance funds for a selected group of industries. In this respect it differs from the majority

[1] Report of Russell M. Brooks, American consul, Johannesburg, October 13, 1937; Union of South Africa, Act No. 25 of 1937 (Unemployment Benefit Act); International Labor Office, Industrial and Labor Information, August 23, 1937, p. 259; and Great Britain, Ministry of Labor Gazette, July 1937, p. 259.

of governmental systems of compulsory unemployment insurance whereby pooled funds are provided. The law of South Africa was enacted in April 1937 to become effective on a future date to be fixed by the Governor-General. Adoption of this legislation followed two unsuccessful attempts on the part of members of Parliament to establish unemployment insurance in 1934 and 1935. The new law places the supervision of the system under a central authority appointed by the Minister of Labor and Social Welfare. Employee contributions in the lower wage brackets are one-third those of employers, increasing until, in the highest of three wage classes, they equal those of the employers. The Government is committed to contribute in an amount equaling one-fourth of the total of employer and employee payments, but reserves the right to allocate such funds in grants and loans under its own terms, requiring compliance with the standards it may fix. Benefits of 10s. to 30s. per week are payable depending upon the wage class in which the contributor falls. To be eligible for benefit an employee must have made at least 26 contributions within the 2 years immediately preceding the period of unemployment. The waiting period is 1 week and benefits are receivable for 26 weeks in any 52.

Coverage

Although employees of only eight industries—building, mechanical and electrical engineering, motor engineering, furniture making, gold mining (within certain areas), leather and footwear manufacture, printing and newspaper, and clothing—are covered by the terms of the act, the Governor-General is empowered to abolish funds or add to them as the need arises. Participation is compulsory for employees under a contract of service or apprenticeship with an employer to perform work in one of the industries listed or in the areas for which a fund has been established. Regardless of whether the contract to work is expressed or implied, oral or written, whether the remuneration is on a time- or piece-rate basis, or whether the contract was entered into before or after setting up of the fund, the members of the industry affected are obliged to contribute.

The chief categories of labor excluded from the system are laborers; persons whose earnings exceed £450 per year (with exceptions); persons performing contract work in a place not under the control of the employer; those performing work for an employer at irregular intervals for less than one day in a calendar week; or employed by more than one employer in a calendar week unless all are operating in the same scheduled industry; husband or wife of an employer, when working for such employer; employees of the Government (including the Railway Administration) or a provincial administration, unless employed in an undertaking within the limits of a sched-

uled industry; persons whose contract of service is regulated under the Native Labor Regulation Act, 1911; and those employed in agriculture including horticulture, forestry, and any employment in or connected with farming.

Contributions

The funds are supported by employers, employees, and the Government. Rates of contribution depend upon the annual earnings of the employee in question. For the purposes of the law workers are divided into three classes. For those with annual earnings of up to £78 the employer contributes 6d. per week and the employee 2d; in the earnings class £79 to £130 the respective weekly payments amount to 10d. and 6d; from £131 to £450 employers and employees make equal contributions of 1s. each.

A person falling in the highest wage class (£131 to £450) is not disqualified from participation by reason of earnings in any week or month of more than the maximum if he contributed to the fund immediately before the week or month when his earnings rose. Such an employee is permitted to continue under the system until his earnings in any week or month are at the rate of more than £500 per year.

To compute annual earnings for the purpose of establishing the contribution rate, the weekly earnings are multiplied by 52, or for those paid by the month the monthly rate is multiplied by 12, or the calculation may be made in such a way as to give the true value of the earnings of the contributor. In establishing earnings on an annual basis the law provides that account shall be taken of the value of any food and quarters supplied by the employer and overtime or other special remuneration of frequent occurrence for work habitually performed. Disputes over the calculation may be referred to the Central Authority, whose decisions are final.

The contribution of the Government is one-fourth of that of the aggregate employer and employee payments. Its contributions are payable to the respective funds, from governmental revenue, at such times and in such manner as the Minister of Labor may determine in consultation with the Central Authority and upon receipt of proof that contributions have been made by employers and workers. Government contributions are placed in a central fund together with certain other assets. The Central Authority is given authority to dispose of Government contributions by aiding a given fund with a monetary grant or advance. It is further provided that "any such grant or advance shall be conditional upon the committee effecting such alteration in the rates of the contributions or benefit or such variation of the conditions relating to the payment of benefit as may be deemed necessary by the Central Authority, and in the case of an

advance upon such terms as to the repayment thereof as the Central Authority may determine."

If in the judgment of the Central Authority the assets of any fund are larger than necessary or are insufficient to meet demands, the Authority may agree to a change in the rate of contributions, or to a variation in the benefits, or any combination of these provisions. Such action must be published by the Central Authority in the Government Gazette and will apply from a date fixed in the notice of change.

Contributions are not required for any employee who, although employed, has not worked in a given week; however, if he has worked for one or more days in a calendar week, contributions are payable for the whole week. If employment in any calendar week is furnished by more than one employer in a scheduled industry, the full amount of the employer contribution is charged to the employer for whom the employee first worked in that week. The full employee contribution for that week is also deducted by the first employer.

Benefits

Amount.—The rate of benefits paid to the worker depends upon the wage classification under which contributions are made toward the unemployment-benefit fund. Persons in the wage class £78 and under, are entitled to 10s. per calendar week, those earning £79 to £130 receive 20s., and persons paid from £131 to £450 per annum receive 30s. per calendar week. The amount of the benefit payments is subject to change in the discretion of the Central Authority, just as are contributions. For any period of less than 1 calendar week the amount of the benefit is calculated at one-sixth for each of the 6 working days.

Benefits to a person in any earnings class are limited to 1 week's payment for each 6 weekly contributions made to a fund, or the amount of benefit standing to his credit in that class, whichever is less. If contributions have been made under more than one earnings classification the payments shall amount to 1 week's benefit for each 6 weekly contributions or the total of the benefits credited to him in each such group, whichever is less. For purposes of this provision the amount of benefit standing to the employee's credit is the amount obtained when the number of weeks of benefit to which he is entitled is multiplied by the rate of benefit applicable for the period in question.

An employee who ceases to contribute to one fund and becomes a contributor to another is entitled to unemployment benefit when earned, under the second fund, subject to the same conditions as if he had not been a contributor to the first fund. Payments to both funds are taken into account in computing the benefits due the

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contributor and are to be considered as having been paid into one fund. If the contributor becomes unemployed within 3 years of the time he belonged to the first fund he is entitled to benefit from the second fund until his rights are exhausted and then from the first fund to the extent his previous payments will cover. In case a worker ceases to contribute to one fund and for any reason deemed sufficient by the Central Authority does not contribute to another in his new employment, he is entitled within 2 years of the time he leaves his previous employment to such unemployment benefit as he has earned in that employment.

Waiting period.—No period of unemployment is deemed to have commenced under the act until the contributor has applied for benefit. No benefit is payable for the first week of unemployment, and for this purpose periods of unemployment separated by less than 9 weeks of employment are regarded as a continuous period of unemployment.

Conditions of benefit.—In case of a contributor who receives compensation for any loss of employment, the committee may consider him as employed during a part of the period and thus not entitled to benefits during that interval. Benefits are further limited to those employees who have made contributions for at least 26 weeks in the 2 years immediately preceding the beginning of unemployment. Payments may not be made unless the contributor is capable of and available for work, with the exception that if he becomes ill while unemployed and the committee is satisfied that such illness is unlikely to have prejudiced his chance of securing work, benefit may be allowed. He must make application for benefit in the prescribed manner. If he is unemployed by reason of a labor dispute he is not entitled to benefit unless the unemployment follows bona fide employment in other suitable work after the stoppage occurs. Persons whose unemployment is attributable to misconduct or due to voluntary separation are not entitled to benefit for 6 weeks from the date when unemployment commenced, unless the committee determines that special circumstances would make this inequitable, in which case the period may be reduced. Other causes for withholding benefits include detention in any prison or other institution maintained wholly or partly with public funds, absence from South Africa, receipt of a pension or other allowance if the amount is sufficient to make benefits unnecessary, and refusal to accept or apply for "suitable" work. Suitable work is defined as employment of a similar class and in the same wage group for the first 13 weeks of unemployment and thereafter any work deemed suitable by the committee (but not including work available because of a labor dispute).

Duration of benefit.—Benefits may be paid for not to exceed 26 weeks in any 52 weeks, commencing with the first day of any period of unemployment for which benefits are allowed.

Administration

Personnel and duties.—The Minister of Labor [3] has jurisdiction over the several unemployment funds established by the Unemployment Benefit Act, 1937, and has the power to reduce or extend the industrial coverage under the law, either on application from interested groups or on his own initiative. In establishing a fund the Minister must give notice in the Government Gazette and define the limits of the scheduled industry. He may, from time to time, vary the areas included.

The Minister is further empowered to appoint a body, known as the Central Authority, consisting of three members one of whom is entrusted with registration of employers' organizations and trade-unions under any law relating to such registration; the second must be a person with sound knowledge of financial matters; and the third must possess sound knowledge of administration. The Minister may designate which of these shall act as chairman of the Authority.

Members may in the discretion of the Minister be paid sums not to exceed £100 per annum for their services, this amount not to form part of their pensionable salary but to be in addition to other salary as officers of the public service.

General supervision of the system is vested in the Central Authority by the terms of the enabling legislation. This body is required to inform itself on the condition of the several funds and the work of the special committees established for each fund; to inquire into any matter relating to a scheduled industry which is likely to affect unemployment; to order necessary investigations; and to determine the financial condition of funds. It is further empowered to report to the Minister of Labor upon objections, determine appeals, control the central fund, collect and collate statistics, approve rules, agree to committee recommendations on the alteration of rates of contributions and benefits or order such changes, alter rules of a committee, control a fund on order of the Minister, and perform any other functions assigned by the Minister. Final determination of questions as to coverage for any employer or contributor is also a power of the Central Authority; such decisions are not subject to appeal in any court of law. A decision by two of the three members of the Authority is deemed a decision of the Central Authority.

The Central Authority may, in its discretion or on motion of a defendant if he makes request within 90 days of notification of a decision, refer a case to the Supreme Court. In such cases no appeal from the Court's decision is permitted unless the Court is of the

[3] When the law was enacted the Union of South Africa had a single department of labor and social welfare. Effective October 1, 1937, these functions were separated and placed under two departments, and administration of the unemployment-benefit system was then placed in the Department of Labor.

opinion that the case involves an important question of law or is of importance to a large body of persons.

For each fund established, a committee of six persons, consisting of an equal number of employer and contributor members, is directly responsible for administration. If a fund is set up on request of members of an industry the committee representatives are chosen by the employers' organizations and the trade-unions concerned, and it is further provided that if there is more than one organization or union the selection shall be by a method determined by the Minister of Labor. If the Minister establishes a fund on his own initiative he is accorded the right to appoint representatives to the committee. A seventh impartial member appointed by the Central Authority may be added in the discretion of the Minister of Labor. As each fund is a corporate body, capable of suing and being sued under the law, and is exempt from income taxes and stamp duties, the responsibility of the management committee is considerable. Alternate members and persons to fill vacancies for unexpired terms are chosen in the same manner as members of committees. Terms of office vary from 1 to 3 years.

Committee members may receive salaries out of the funds as determined by the Central Authority with the approval of the Minister of Labor.

The functions of the committees are to receive applications for benefit; decide whether benefit is due and in what amount; make payments in accordance with their own decision or with the decision of the Central Authority in cases of appeal; recommend changes in contributions and the conditions of benefit payment; collect the contributions payable; make required reports; keep accounts; maintain records and minutes of proceedings; and perform such other duties as may be required for carrying out the terms of the act. Persons may appeal decisions of committees to the Central Authority, provided action is taken in writing within 14 days of the notification of the decision.

For cause, the Minister of Labor may disestablish a committee and place administration of the fund affected under the Central Authority for a specified period.

Funds.—The law provides that each fund shall maintain its own bank account, made up from contributions, and in addition there shall be a central fund wherein are deposited the Government's contributions toward maintenance of the unemployment system plus deposits from the individual funds and interest on investments. Each industry fund is permitted to keep in its individual account only such sums as the Central Authority may approve as necessary to cover current expenses. Amounts in excess of such requirements are placed in the central fund and together with sums contributed by the Government and earned by investment must be deposited with the Public Debt

Commissioners in one account to be known as the "unemployment-benefit funds account."

The Central Authority is responsible for keeping accounts of the moneys of each industry fund and the central fund and must at the end of each calendar year allocate to each fund the proportionate share of interest earned from deposits with the Public Debt Commissioners. In addition the Authority makes money available to the separate funds as needed, drawing upon Government funds allocated to the several industry funds as well as upon employer and employee contributions. Annual reports on operations are required.

Officials handling money of the fund must give such security as the committee deems sufficient. Expenditures in connection with administration are a charge against the fund affected and the amounts may not exceed a sum determined by the Central Authority.

Contributions and benefit procedure.—Employers are required to pay into the appropriate fund the amount of their own and their employees' contributions, within 7 days after the calendar month for which they are due. The committee may, however, agree to another date of payment. In this connection the employer is obliged to keep comprehensive records of wages and time worked by employees.

The applicant for benefit must conform with the rules established by the committee for such payments and is entitled to receive benefits only if on investigation it appears that he has met the requirements. If benefits are paid in error, the recipient is liable for the repayment of the amount to the proper fund in full. This requirement may be waived if the committee deems it inequitable to require repayment of the whole amount or any portion of it.

Any person who is guilty of an offense under the terms of the unemployment-benefit law is liable to a fine or imprisonment or both.

Employers whose establishments are covered by the system under any scheduled industry must, within 10 days of establishment of the fund or of establishment of their respective businesses, notify the management committee of the fund, giving the address and nature of operations of their business. Failure to do so constitutes an offense and is punishable as already stated.

Vacations with Pay

PAID VACATIONS IN LATIN AMERICA

TWELVE of the Latin American Republics (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Haiti, Mexico, Panama, Peru, Salvador, Uruguay, and Venezuela) have now (January 1938) legislation in force providing annual vacations with pay for one or more classes of employees. Both salaried and wage-earning employees in certain types of employment are so benefited in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Cuba, Mexico, Peru, and Venezuela, but only salaried employees in Colombia, Haiti, Panama, Salvador, and Uruguay. In Mexico only persons working under labor contracts are legally entitled to vacations with pay. Domestic servants are specifically covered in Chile and Peru. Though several of the Republics had earlier legislation which has been replaced, the earliest legislation now in effect governing vacations with pay in the various countries dates from the following years: Salvador, 1927; Chile, Colombia, Mexico, and Panama, 1931; Peru, 1932; Brazil and Uruguay, 1933; Argentina and Haiti, 1934; Cuba, 1935; and Venezuela, 1936.

Coverage

Salaried and wage-earning employees in commercial enterprises in Argentina are legally entitled to earn annual vacations at their work. In Brazil salaried and wage-earning employees in commercial and banking enterprises, private relief institutions, and the commercial departments of industrial establishments, and salaried and wage-earning employees who are members of workers' associations approved by the Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce and who are employed in any kind of industrial establishments, newspapers, land or air communication or transportation, the industrial departments of commercial enterprises, and small-scale workshops, laboratories, etc., and crews of national vessels of all kinds, are covered by various legislation authorizing vacations. Chilean legislation embraces salaried and wage-earning employees, including marine wage-earning employees engaged in coastwise, river, or lake navigation, persons engaged in aviation, or in submarine or underground work, and domestic servants. Salaried employees of private firms in Colombia are entitled to paid vacations. The Cuban vacation legislation applies to salaried and wage-earning employees and apprentices

in commercial and industrial establishments which employ more than five salaried and wage-earning employees. In Haiti, clerks in commercial establishments, shops, and banks are entitled to paid vacations. Mexican legislation accords vacations to persons who render manual or intellectual services, or both, to another by virtue of a labor contract. In Panama, salaried employees in commercial or industrial establishments earn annual vacations with pay. Vacation legislation in Peru covers salaried and wage-earning employees in both commercial and industrial establishments, and includes also domestic servants. The legislation of Salvador includes only commercial employees. In Uruguay, salaried employees in commercial establishments and in private offices and salaried employees and clerical staffs in the offices of industrial establishments, and workers in commercial establishments who prepare or arrange merchandise for the needs of the establishment itself, cleaners, watchmen and repairers of merchandise, are provided for in the vacation legislation, but hair-dressing establishments are not included among those which must grant vacations. The Venezuelan labor law accords annual vacations to both salaried and wage-earning employees.

Length of Service Required

In most instances, the legislation stipulates that the service which qualifies for vacation must be in one enterprise, and in some instances service must be continuous or uninterrupted. In Cuba, 6 months of service qualifies for a vacation, or in enterprises working irregular days or hours, the equivalent of 6 months of continuous service. The legislation of Argentina, Chile (salaried employees and domestic servants), Colombia, Haiti, Peru (salaried employees), and Salvador, authorizes a vacation each year. The employee begins to earn his vacation after a year of service in Mexico, Uruguay, and Venezuela, and after 2 years in Panama. Service for 12 months qualifies for a vacation in Brazil, but in industrial establishments the employee must have worked at least 150 days. Wage-earning employees in Chile must have worked at least 220 days in a year in order to be entitled to a vacation. In Peru wage-earning employees and domestic servants must have been employed by the same employer for at least a year and have worked at least 260 days during that year.

Date of Vacation and Manner of Fixing It

The date of vacation is fixed by the employer in Argentina, Brazil, Chile (for salaried employees, upon their written request), Colombia, Cuba, Peru (salaried employees), and Uruguay, but in Uruguay the schedule of the year's vacations prepared by the establishments in January of each year may be changed twice in the year for reasons

approved by the National Labor Institute. The time is to be suited to the interests of the establishment, according to the legislation of Brazil, Colombia, Cuba, and Peru (wage-earning employees and domestic servants); but taking into consideration the interests of the establishment, in Peru, wage-earning employees and domestic servants may take their vacations at any time they wish. If there are more than five employees in an establishment in Chile, at least four-fifths of the personnel must be on the job at all times; if there are fewer than five employees, not more than one person is to be on vacation at a time. In Cuba, the wishes of the employee are to be taken into consideration when possible. The time is to be set 1 month in advance in Salvador, by agreement between employer and employee. In Panama the time is to be set by agreement between employer and employee. In Brazil the employee must be notified in writing at least a week in advance of his vacation. In Chile the employee is to make written request for his vacation at least 1 month in advance and his notification must also be in writing. In Uruguay the schedule of vacations for the year, when approved by the National Labor Institute, is to be posted in a visible place in the establishment.

The vacation in Chile is to be taken preferably in spring or summer. In Brazil the vacation must be taken within 12 months following the qualifying period. Vacations in Cuba are not to be deferred more than 6 months beyond the qualifying period without the authorization of the Department of Labor. Under specified circumstances vacations are cumulative, but for not more than 2 years in Chile, Colombia, and Panama, and for 3 years in Salvador. In Panama the vacation may be taken at the end of the qualifying period or in any subsequent month; if allowed to accumulate, both months may be taken at one time. Vacation time in Salvador which has accumulated may be taken at any time, provided the time taken does not exceed that for the 3 years.

Length of Vacation

Length of vacation varies with years of service in Argentina and Mexico, with days of service during the qualifying period in Brazil and Chile, and with type of employment in Peru and Venezuela. Legislation which provides no variation in length of vacation allows the following periods each year: Colombia, 15 working days; Cuba, 14 days—7 days for 6 months; Haiti, at least 15 days; Panama, 1 month; Salvador, not less than 15 days; and Uruguay, 2 weeks. Wage-earning employees and domestic servants in Peru are allowed 15 days of vacation each year, and salaried employees, 30 days. In Venezuela, wage-earning employees receive 7 working days and salaried employees 15 days per year. Persons in Argentina who are

entitled to vacations who have not to exceed 5 years of service to their credit are allowed 10 days; from 5 to 10 years, 15 days; from 10 to 20 years, 20 days; and over 20 years, 30 days. Employees in Mexico with more than a year's service are entitled to not less than 4 working days of vacation; after 2 years of service, at least 6 working days. In Brazil, employees in commercial and banking and similar enterprises are entitled to 15 days of vacation each year; employees in industrial establishments who have worked more than 250 days in the qualifying period are to have 15 days' vacation; those who have worked from 200 to 250 days, 11 days' vacation; persons who have worked from 150 to 200 days, 7 days' vacation; persons who have worked less than 150 days are not entitled to vacations. Annual vacations for salaried employees and domestic servants in Chile amount to 15 days; for wage-earning employees who have been employed for 288 days in a year, the vacation is 15 days in length, but if they have worked from 220 to 288 days, they are allowed only 7 days.

Continuity of Vacations

Vacations are to be taken in one period in Argentina, Haiti, and Peru. In Brazil, employees in commercial and banking and similar establishments under 18 or over 50 years of age must take their vacations in one period; other persons may take them in two periods, one of which must be not less than 7 days in length. In industrial establishments in Brazil, employees have the option of taking their vacation in one period or in installments of at least 5 days each, but members of a family working in the same establishment may take their vacation at the same time if they so desire.

Remuneration

All vacations discussed in this report are remunerated, and unless otherwise stated, at regular rate. In Brazil, Cuba, and Salvador, employees are paid in advance for their vacation time. Pay for employees in commercial and banking and similar establishments in Brazil is at the regular rate or the average for the last 12 months; for those in industrial establishments, the average for the last 6 months of the qualifying period is to be taken. In Brazil workdays missed without legitimate reason are deducted from the vacation and the pay for these days from the pay for vacation, but when an employer fails to provide vacations, he must pay double for the vacation not allowed. Vacations in Chile are not compensable in cash, unless an employee is leaving an establishment. In Cuba cash pay for vacations is supplemented by the cash equivalent of pay ordinarily received in kind, and vacation time not taken in the usual manner through no fault of the employee is carried over to the following year, but for this deferring

of time, the employee receives at least a third of regular pay. From vacation time in Mexico may be deducted workdays missed without legitimate reason. Technical workers in Peru who, because of conditions in the business are not able to take their vacations, are paid three times their usual pay for the time not taken. Overtime worked in Peru also entitles the worker to additional vacation time.

Loss of Right to Vacation

Acceptance of paid work during vacation period in Brazil and Cuba causes the forfeiture of the next vacation to which the employee would otherwise be entitled. Other reasons for forfeiture of vacation are: In Cuba, dismissal for cause and absence from work for more than 6 months; in Uruguay, serious offense by the employee in connection with his work, but in this instance the employee has the right to appeal to the Superior Labor Council, which has final authority.

SOURCES.—This article is based on data from the following sources:

Argentina.—International Labor Office, Geneva, Legislative Series, 1934 Argentina 3.

Brazil.—International Labor Office, Geneva, Legislative Series, 1933 Brazil 3, and 1934 Brazil 4; Revista do Trabalho, Rio de Janeiro, July 1936, p. 39, and July 1937, p. 336.

Chile.—International Labor Office, Geneva, Legislative Series, 1931 Chile 1, and 1934 Chile 1; Diario Oficial, Santiago de Chile, June 20, 1932, January 24, 1934, and February 10, 1937.

Colombia.—Boletin de la Oficina Nacional del Trabajo, Bogotá, May-June 1931, pp. 838-850; January-December 1935, pp. 445-451; October 1936-March 1937, pp. 121-122, 127-128.

Cuba.—International Labor Office, Geneva, Legislative Series, 1935 Cuba 4; Reports of H. Freeman Matthews, first secretary of American Embassy at Habana, November 6, 1935, and July 16 and August 1, 1936; Gaceta Oficial, Habana, March 11, 1937, pp. 4066-4067, and July 28, 1937, p. 1553; U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Commerce Reports, December 5, 1936, pp. 967-968.

Haiti.—International Labor Office, Geneva, Legislative Series, 1934 Haiti 1.

Mexico.—U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin No. 569: Labor Legislation of Mexico. Washington, 1932.

Panama.—International Labor Office, Geneva, Legislative Series, 1931 Panama 1; Gaceta Oficial, Panama, October 15 and November 9, 1936.

Peru.—International Labor Office, Geneva, Legislative Series, 1932 Peru 1, and 1933 Peru 1; Revista de Economia y Finanzas, Lima, January 1937, p. 31; Report of R. M. de Lambert, secretary of the American Embassy at Lima, August 24, 1937.

Salvador.—International Labor Office, Geneva, Legislative Series, 1927 Salvador 1.

Uruguay.—International Labor Office, Geneva, Legislative Series, 1933 Uruguay 2, and 1934 Uruguay 2; Republica Oriental del Uruguay, Ministerio de Industrias y Trabajo, Instituto Nacional del Trabajo y Servicios Anexados, Licencia Anual y Cierre Uniforme, Montevideo, 1935, pp. 3-9; Diario Oficial, Montevideo, February 21, 1936.

Venezuela.—International Labor Office, Geneva, Legislative Series, 1936 Venezuela 2.

Profit Sharing

PROFIT SHARING FOR INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYEES

THE practice by industrial undertakings of sharing profits with employees has been advocated on various social and economic grounds and, although failing to meet with general success, has been the subject of periodic interest, particularly during periods of rising business activity. A recent study[1] by the National Industrial Conference Board is based on the experience with 161 formal plans, of which 50 were active, 15 inactive, and 96 discontinued. In addition, 32 plans for giving extra compensation which could not be classified as true profit sharing were included. Of the 50 active plans 5 were in the electrical-appliance industry; 2 in the food-products industry; 10 in the machinery and machine-tools industry; 9 in other metal-products industries; 5 in the paper and printing industry; 4 in the textile industry; 4 in mercantile establishments; 1 in a financial institution; and 10 in miscellaneous manufacturing establishments. The extra-compensation plans were distributed among the same industries, with the exception of electrical appliances. The 82 companies having the two types of plans employed approximately 200,000 persons, of whom all but 29,724 were covered by the formal profit-sharing plans. The study did not include plans which were restricted to executives or special groups, and covered, therefore, plans in which most or all of the employees were included in the distribution.

In order to be included in the study as true profit sharing, a plan had to provide that payments to employees shall bear a definite relation to the profits of the company. The most important problem to be settled in establishing a plan, the report states, is the decision by management as to what constitutes an equitable division of profits between the employees and the stockholders. There are various determining factors in the method of apportioning the profits to be paid to the employees, such as the basic purpose of the plan, the financial position of the company, the outstanding obligations to stockholders, and the relative liberality of the management. As a result of these varying factors, there was no uniformity in the provisions of the plans as regards the percentage of profits allocated to employees or in the manner of their distribution to the individual

[1] National Industrial Conference Board, Inc. Profit Sharing and Other Supplementary-Compensation Plans Covering Wage Earners, by F. Beatrice Brower. New York, 247 Park Ave., 1937.

workers. However, it was possible to classify the 50 plans broadly in three groups, i. e., 14 plans in which no deductions were made for capital earnings before computing the employees' share of the profits, 19 plans in which a deduction for dividends was made before the division of profits to the employees, and 9 plans in which profit sharing was dependent on dividends to stockholders. In eight cases the percentage of profits paid to employees and the method of computation was not reported.

In the first group, in which the employees' share of the profits was taken from the net earnings of the companies before deduction of any earnings on capital investment, the percentage divided among eligible employees ranged from 5 to 33⅓. In the second group of plans, in which the stockholders' interest was protected before providing for the distribution to employees, 5 to 10 percent was deducted from net profits for payment of dividends on preferred or common stock by 17 companies, while 2 companies deducted fixed amounts, varying proportions of the balance being distributed to the employees. The proportion paid to employees ranged from 12½ percent of the balance to 75 percent in 14 companies, while two companies divided among the employees the entire amount left after the stock dividend, two made the division on the basis of the proportion of capital invested to the total pay roll, and in one case the proportion paid to employees was not reported. In the third group of companies the employees' share of the profits was based on the amount of dividends declared on company stock. In three of these companies an imaginary block of stock is set up on which the same dividends are paid as on common stock, in two companies an amount equal to that paid in dividends on common stock is paid into the employees' fund (one of these pays this only on extra dividends), one company pays the same percentage in wages as stockholders receive in dividends, and in the remaining companies the employees receive a proportion of the amount of dividends above a fixed value.

In regard to the amounts distributed, it is stated in the report that "the percentage of profits cannot be regarded as an unfailing index of the relative liberality of the plan, however, as the rate of earnings of companies differs so widely that what apparently is a small percentage may in reality represent a liberal contribution from management."

The profits distributed among employees are frequently in exact ratio to their earnings, but in a majority of the plans other factors are included. Twenty-two of the plans provided for distribution in exact ratio of each worker's wages to the total pay roll, while various combinations of earnings, length of service, and rank were the basis of the allotment in 18 plans; in 2 cases the employees' share was dependent on thrift; and varied provisions were featured in the plans of 8 other

companies. Only one of the 50 companies paid a flat sum to the employees, regardless of position, wages, and service.

The managerial group as well as the rank and file employees participated under the same plan in more than two-thirds of the companies. In 25 of the companies the two groups shared alike, although the managerial group received a larger sum in view of their larger salaries. In 11 cases this group received a higher percentage of profits than the employees, while in 6 cases the managerial group did not participate, and in 6 cases there were different plans for the 2 groups. In two cases only salaried employees were eligible; in one of these companies this policy was based upon the belief that the principle of profit sharing would not be understood by the unskilled group, the experience under the plan having been such as to decide the company to restrict participation to the managerial group and the skilled workers.

Service requirements for participation varied greatly, the extremes ranging from participation by all persons in the employ of the company at the time the dividend is declared to a service requirement, in one instance, of 10 years. The usual requirements, however, range from 3 months to 1 year. In one case only did the profit-sharing plan provide for the sharing of losses by the employees. In this plan salaried employees receiving more than $118.75 per month are subject to a 1 percent reduction in their base rates for every unit of $60,000 by which the company's monthly net income is below $600,000. No further deduction is made, however, when the consolidated statement shows a loss, and wage earners and salaried employees in the lower brackets are not subject to the loss-sharing provisions.

Profit-sharing plans providing for distribution of earnings on a monthly or quarterly basis make adjustment for losses more difficult than when it is on an annual basis. However, in companies which distribute earnings more frequently than once a year there is usually some provision for averaging the losses in unprofitable periods against gains in more prosperous periods.

Profits were distributed in the form of cash in 42 of the 50 plans studied. In the remaining eight companies, the distribution was in the form of stock, interest-bearing certificates, or other forms, or part cash and part securities, largely for the purpose of inducing the employees to save the extra compensation.

The distribution of the employees' share of profits, it was found, was most frequently made at the end of the fiscal year, but although in some ways it is simpler than more frequent distributions, it is stated in the report, it has not been entirely successful. One of the most important objections to the annual distribution is that the interval between payments is too long to maintain the interest of the employees, with the result that they lose sight of the primary

purpose of the profit sharing. Twenty-one of the companies followed the plan of annual distribution of profits and 6 each paid them semi-annually, quarterly, and monthly. In four cases the payments depended upon stock dividends, four paid wage earners more frequently than the supervisory group, and in three cases the distribution period was not reported. It is stated in the report that apparently there is a trend toward increasing the frequency of the distribution of profits, for while a study made by the Conference Board in 1920 showed that 32 out of 41 plans, or 78 percent, made distributions annually, the present study showed that the proportion on an annual basis had dropped to 21 out of 50 plans, or 42 percent.

Other Extra-Compensation Plans

Information was obtained in the course of the study regarding 32 additional compensation plans, some of which could have been classed as true profit sharing except for the fact that the proportion of profits divided among employees was either revised periodically by the management or distributions were not entirely dependent on the earnings of the company.

Thirteen companies had plans providing for the payment of bonuses based on length of service; 15 had informal profit-sharing plans, the amount of the share in 8 of the plans being determined by individual merit and worth, and in 7 cases the share consisting of a uniform percentage of earnings determined by the management; 3 had stock credit or distribution plans; and 1 company had a merit-rating plan.

In addition to the companies which have adopted such plans, many companies distribute year-end bonuses in times of prosperity.

Results of Profit-Sharing Plans

The reasons for the adoption of profit-sharing plans, it is said, are both practical and altruistic. A frequent reason given for the establishment of such plans is the belief that the employees should share in the profits they have helped to create, while profit sharing has also been regarded as "a stabilizer of the wage scale by providing a flexible, supplementary payment that will fluctuate with business conditions and yet also permit the company to control the wage cost so that it will bear a definite relation to company income." Another reason for the adoption of profit sharing has been to encourage employees to save and to build up a reserve for old age or emergencies. Underlying these reasons is said to be the hope that it will result in better cooperation and interest in the company's welfare on the part of the worker.

Some of the results of the operation of the plans, as reported by different companies, were improvement of employee morale and of

the relations between management and the workers, greater efficiency, and reduced labor turn-over. The active plans reported on in this study are in general those which have been successful over a period of years, as more than half of them were in operation before the depression. Approximately 43 percent of the discontinued plans of 96 companies (which were 60 percent of the true profit-sharing plans surveyed, however) were given up because of dissatisfaction on the part of management or the unfavorable response of the workers. An additional 12 percent of the companies did not give the reason for discontinuance, but it was assumed the experience had been unsatisfactory. The remaining 45 percent of the plans were apparently discontinued "not because of any fault in the plan itself but because of extraneous influences."

The conclusion drawn from this study of both active and discontinued plans is that the future of profit sharing is problematical. "Each rise in the business cycle brings with it plans designed to reward the workers in some measure for the hardships suffered during the depression and to give them an opportunity to share in the returning prosperity, but how large a proportion of all such plans will survive recurrent depression is an open question."

Education and Training

PROVISION FOR EDUCATION IN C. C. C. CAMPS IN 1938

EDUCATIONAL and vocational training of at least 10 hours per week for the unemployed young men who have enrolled in C. C. C. camps was specifically provided for in the recent act of Congress prolonging the life of the Corps. Authority was also given to the Director of the Corps to allow enrollees to interrupt the period of enrollment for attendance at school or college, returning to camp at the termination of the school term. The objectives and general features of the educational program for 1938 are discussed in an article in School Life for October 1937 (p. 51), published by the United States Department of the Interior.

Instruction for the 10 hours per week is to be provided on week nights and Saturday mornings, and additional opportunities will be furnished for enrollees who wish further instruction. An increased expenditure of $4,500,000, which has been approved by the Director, will allow 2,600 square feet of space for classrooms and shops in every camp, an educational adviser for each company, and additional funds for educational supplies and equipment.

An individualized type of education has been found to be peculiarly adapted to C. C. C. camps, and will be continued. A recent conference in Washington, D. C., of the Corps area educational advisers, considered plans to make the educational program more effective. Individual needs and interests as the basis of camp education were emphasized, and it was felt that for that reason job training and leisure-time education should be more closely connected. Enrollees should be placed on work projects for which they have a vocational aptitude or interest.

Literacy and elementary and higher education are to be continued as objectives of the educational program. Utilization of nearby school facilities for instruction of enrollees has been facilitated by provision by the Director for the expense connected therewith. Cooperation of schools and colleges in the C. C. C. educational program has been assured, as over three-fourths of the 120 colleges requested to give scholarship aid have responded favorably.

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF PHILADELPHIA PUBLIC-SCHOOL GRADUATES OF 1935

AN OCCUPATIONAL follow-up study of 5,898 of the graduates of 1935 of the Philadelphia high schools and vocational schools showed an encouraging percentage of employment stability and a marked correlation between the jobs held and the training received.[1]

As table 1 indicates, on April 1, 1937, 59 percent of the 1935 high-school graduates had jobs, over 24 percent were attending school, 14 percent were seeking employment, and 2 percent were not seeking gainful work.[2] The corresponding percentages for the graduates of vocational schools were 71, 2, 22, and 5.

TABLE 1.—*Employment Status of Philadelphia Public-School Graduates of 1935, as of April 1, 1937*

Type of school and curriculum	Grand total			Attending day school		
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female
Grand total	5,898	2,876	3,022	1,356	725	631
High-school graduates	5,560	2,726	2,834	1,350	719	631
Academic curriculum	2,423	1,376	1,047	1,096	582	514
Business curriculum	2,076	465	1,611	96	33	63
Industrial curriculum:						
Auto mechanics	153	153	0	5	5	0
Building construction	53	53	0	1	1	0
Electrical construction	116	116	0	5	5	0
Machine construction	143	143	0	1	1	0
Mechanic arts	400	400	0	81	81	0
Home economics	116	0	116	30	0	30
Vocational art	73	18	55	32	9	23
Vocational music	7	2	5	3	2	1
Vocational school graduates	338	150	188	6	6	0
Dressmaking	53	0	53	0	0	0
Millinery	26	0	26	0	0	0
Power operating	1	0	1	0	0	0
Auto mechanics	35	35	0	1	1	0
Electrical construction	33	33	0	3	3	0
Machine construction	12	12	0	0	0	0
Mechanical drafting	16	16	0	0	0	0
Textiles	14	14	0	0	0	0
Woodwork	15	15	0	0	0	0
Home economics	22	0	22	0	0	0
Business curriculum	88	4	84	0	0	0
Vocational art	16	15	1	0	0	0
Vocational music	7	6	1	2	2	0

[1] Occupations—The Vocational Guidance Magazine, New York, December 1937: A follow-up study of Philadelphia public-school graduates, by Ann Pavan.

[2] The members of this group were married, keeping house for their families, waiting to return to jobs or 8 cases) deceased.

TABLE 1.—*Employment Status of Philadelphia Public-School Graduates of 1935, as of April 1, 1937*—Continued

Type of school and curriculum	Employed			Seeking employment			Not seeking employment
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes
Grand total	3,535	1,769	1,766	863	369	494	[1] 144
High-school graduates	3,295	1,656	1,639	787	340	447	128
Academic curriculum	1,015	647	368	267	141	126	45
Business curriculum	1,538	339	1,199	376	91	285	66
Industrial curriculum:							
Auto mechanics	126	126	0	21	21	0	1
Building construction	47	47	0	5	5	0	0
Electrical construction	91	91	0	20	20	0	0
Machine construction	115	115	0	26	26	0	1
Mechanic arts	285	285	0	33	33	0	1
Home economics	49	0	49	26	0	26	11
Vocational art	25	6	19	13	3	10	3
Vocational music	4	0	4	0	0	0	0
Vocational school graduates	240	113	127	76	29	47	16
Dressmaking	44	0	44	6	0	6	3
Millinery	18	0	18	5	0	5	3
Power operating	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
Auto mechanics	27	27	0	7	7	0	0
Electrical construction	24	24	0	5	5	0	1
Machine construction	11	11	0	0	0	0	1
Mechanical drafting	13	13	0	3	3	0	0
Textiles	9	9	0	5	5	0	0
Woodwork	12	12	0	3	3	0	0
Home economics	14	0	14	7	0	7	1
Business curriculum	54	3	51	28	1	27	6
Vocational art	11	11	0	5	4	1	1
Vocational music	3	3	0	1	1	0	0

[1] Of these, only 13 were males.

Of the 1,350 high-school graduates reported as continuing their education, 67 percent were registered for work in universities and colleges, 10 percent in normal schools, and 8 percent in business schools. Table 1, however, reports only those attending school at the time of the survey. As a matter of fact, 65 percent of the graduates of high schools and 37 percent of the graduates of vocational schools continued their education after they had graduated.

Stability of employment.—Forty-two percent of the high-school graduates with jobs had held one position since graduation; 28 percent, 2 positions; and 17 percent, 3 positions. The corresponding percentages for the graduates of vocational schools were respectively 45, 30, and 13.

Unemployment.—Of the 787 high-school graduates and 76 vocational-school graduates who were seeking employment at the time of the survey, 19 percent of the former and 27 percent of the latter had had no employment. However, 33 percent of the high-school graduates and 23 percent of the vocational-school graduates had had 12 months or more of employment experience since their graduation. Unemployment among graduates varied from 7 to 27 percent, according to the location of the school, the higher percentages being for schools in the poorer and predominantly foreign sections of Philadelphia. In the judgment of the investigator, this seems "to be

evidence that environmental background acts as a contributing factor in the successful occupational adjustment of young people after graduation."

Relation of jobs held to training received.—Of the 1,538 high-school graduates of the business curriculum who were employed, 80 percent had office or sales work jobs for which that curriculum prepares; and 63 percent of the high-school graduates of the industrial curriculum had employment in which they could utilize their training.

The distribution of graduates of these two curricula, by jobs held, is given in the following table:

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Distribution of Graduates Having Positions Related to Curricula Followed*

Position	Percent of graduates	Position	Percent of graduates
Business curriculum		*Industrial curriculum*	
General office workers	51	Factory workers (handwork)	23
Stenographers	20	Apprentices in metal trades	19
Salesmen (store)	9	Factory workers (machine work)	16
Typists	7	Machinists (helper)	14
Bookkeepers	4	Draftsmen or tracers	9
Office machine operators	4	Technical assistants	7
Stock or shipping clerks	3	Building trades workers	5
Office boys or inside messengers	1	Supervisory assistants	4
Salesmen (outside)	1	Chauffeurs or truck drivers	3

Earnings of employed group.—The weekly rates of pay of the 3,295 high-school and 240 vocational-school graduates who were employed at the time of the survey are recorded in table 3:

TABLE 3.—*Percentage Distribution of Employed Graduates, by Weekly Earnings, April 1, 1937*

Class and sex	Percent in each classified weekly earnings group						
	Under $10	$10–$12	$13–$15	$16–$18	$19–$21	$22–$24	$25 and over
High-school graduates	8	19	33	22	10	3	5
Males	7	14	27	24	14	5	9
Females	9	24	39	20	6	1	1
Vocational-school graduates	11	25	29	19	9	5	2
Males	3	24	22	25	13	9	4
Females	18	26	37	13	5	1	0

Conclusion.—After giving credit to wise guidance and improved economic conditions as factors in the gratifying situation shown by this survey, the author emphasizes the fact that these young persons were withheld from the wage-earning world until they had reached the age of 18 and suggests that "future educational programs should provide means for keeping adolescents under 18 in school and off the job market." The study, it is further stated, has also disclosed "the need for post-graduate training in the public schools for the purpose of maintaining or increasing the skills of those graduates who cannot pay for further schooling."

Cooperation

COOPERATIVE TELEPHONE ASSOCIATIONS, 1936[1]

By FLORENCE E. PARKER, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

COOPERATIVE telephone associations represent one of the older forms of cooperative enterprise. In the survey just completed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics it was found that for the group as a whole the average age was more than a quarter of a century. The oldest association reporting dated from 1893. The period from 1900 to 1919 was the most fruitful; nearly 88 percent of those making returns were formed in this 20-year interval.

To judge by the returns in the present study, however, almost no new associations are being formed in this field. This is probably due to conditions in this branch of business. Today the entire country is fairly well covered by the telephone network and there appears to be comparatively little territory into which to expand.

At the time the early associations were formed, there were few telephones in the rural districts. The telephone had been known only for about two decades and had not yet spread much beyond the cities and towns. In the country the sparse, widely scattered population made the installation of service by private companies unprofitable, and the farmers in many localities were entirely isolated and cut off from communication not only with each other but with the outside world. It was to remedy this situation that the telephone associations began to be started.

These early associations were generally the product of mutual effort. The poles were cut from nearby timberland or purchased collectively, and were erected by the members all working together. Sometimes the wires were even strung along the fences. Wire, insulators, batteries, and instruments were bought collectively and the cost was apportioned among the members. If there was a switchboard in a nearby village, the association would bargain for connection and service there; if not, a small switchboard of their own would be installed, perhaps in some conveniently located farmhouse. The costs of operation were very small, as any repairs necessary were generally made by the cooperators themselves.

[1] Part of a general survey of cooperative associations being carried on by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Data on cooperative housing associations were given in the Monthly Labor Review for November 1937 (p. 1146), and on cooperative electricity associations, for January 1938 (p. 110).

The service in these early organizations usually afforded communication either within the cooperative group only or within the immediate locality. The next step would be to obtain connection with nearby towns and villages and then with long distance. As this extension took place and as new lines came into existence, some overlapping of territory and service became inevitable. This led to mutual agreements between lines and eventually to consolidation of several lines within given territories, to form larger associations. This process of consolidation was undoubtedly hastened by the gradual spread of State regulation of telephone companies of all types.

Whereas the original organizations were largely informal, unincorporated associations, as they grew larger and extended their field of operations, more and more of them took corporate form. Some of the local associations which had no switchboard of their own formed federated associations for the purchase and operation of a switchboard which would handle the calls of all of them.

All of these stages of development are represented in the associations which reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. With some minor variation they fall into three main classes, as follows:

(1) The so-called "service line"—the local association, formed among the subscribers on one or more party lines, which has no switchboard of its own but connects with other local lines and the outside world through the switchboard of another company, either cooperative or private. In these associations the cooperative enterprise is one of common ownership and maintenance of the telephone facilities and of bargaining for switchboard service.

(2) The local association, also composed of individual telephone users, having its own switchboard.

(3) The switchboard association of the federated type, whose membership is composed of local service-line associations.

Extreme variation was found in size of societies. Those reporting varied from the associations which consisted of only one party line and some half dozen members to a large organization with a membership of 4,025, serving 6,606 families throughout a whole county. Most of them, however, were small organizations operating in small towns or rural districts. Nearly 68 percent of those reporting had fewer than 50 members each, and of the whole number only 19 associations had 500 members or more.

On the basis of the findings in the Bureau's study it may be said that the typical telephone association is a small organization of 60 to 70 members, serving on an average about 90 subscribers (including members). The association is more likely than not to be incorporated, and quite likely to be operating its own switchboard. Generally the association owns the poles and wire along the right-of-way,

but the wire and poles necessary to carry the service to the member's home must usually be furnished by the member. It is also common to find that the member must furnish his telephone instrument in the smaller associations, though in the larger organizations these are generally owned by the company.

The construction may be either of the single-wire (grounded) type or double-wire (metallic) type; in the former the ground completes the circuit, whereas in the latter the entire circuit is carried by wire. The grounded type is less expensive to maintain but is also said to be less satisfactory as to clearness of reception and general service. The existing associations appear to be about evenly divided between the grounded and metallic types.

Local service for 24 hours a day is quite general and toll connection is also usually available.

The typical association operates on an assessment basis; about twice as many associations make assessments as charge flat rates. The cost of service to the member is very moderate, averaging $7.77 a year in the assessment associations, and in those charging flat rates 87 cents a month for rural service and 92 cents a month for service within the village or town limits.

The financial data obtained in the survey were not entirely satisfactory, owing to lost records, inadequate records, and lack of knowledge of business methods on the part of a considerable number of the reporting associations. On the basis of the returns, however, it appears that the average gross revenue per association in 1936 was only $968. This average probably understates the actual amount. Many of the service-line associations handle almost no cash in the course of the year. Even the fee paid per telephone to the switchboard company for making switchboard connections may not pass through the local association but may be paid by the individual members directly to that company; in such cases, however, where the amount of the switching fee could be obtained the total amount paid in such fees was credited as income to the service-line association. Many of the associations have no employees and make little or no cash expenditures. If repairs are needed, the members as a whole either make them themselves (purchasing only the necessary materials) or hire from a local company the services of a lineman at a fixed hourly rate.

Taking into consideration the fact that many of the associations were formed before the passage of cooperative laws, that they are operating under corporation acts whose requirements are in many cases in direct contravention of cooperative practice, and that as public utilities they are in a number of States subject to public regulation by State utility commissions, a surprisingly high degree of

conformity with cooperative principle was found among them. It may be said, however, that few of them have any conception of themselves as a part of a general cooperative movement. They have been content with their avowed purpose of furnishing telephone service in territories which would ordinarily be without such service if they did not exist. This service they are furnishing through democratic channels and at extremely low cost.

Scope and Method of Study

From various sources the Bureau assembled a list including not only associations operating as cooperatives but also those operating as mutuals. One or more associations of these types were found in 44 States. All of these were circularized one or more times.

Examination of the replies showed that a substantial number of the so-called "cooperative associations," while they may have been cooperative in their early years, were no longer so. A very large proportion of the "mutuals," however, although making no pretensions to being cooperative, nevertheless were conforming to all of the cooperative principles except possibly that of return of patronage dividends; and in most instances the same purpose—service without profit—was being achieved through the medium of rates only high enough to cover expenses.

In order to be included in the Bureau's tabulation an association had to be at least semicooperative. For purposes of this study an association was regarded as entirely cooperative which conformed to the principles of open membership, a single vote per member, no proxy voting, limited return on share capital, and service at cost (either through the patronage refund or through service rates so low as to yield no profit). An association was regarded as semicooperative which allowed voting by shares but limited to a small number the shares held by any one person, or which allowed proxy voting but only one vote per member; no association was included in the tabulations in which both voting by proxy and voting by shares was allowed or in which the nonmember subscribers outnumbered the members, unless the organization was clearly a nonprofit association. In evaluating the cooperative features, consideration was given to requirements of State cooperative and other laws and to public-utility regulations.

Altogether there were 1,614 associations which furnished usable reports and which were cooperative on a sufficient number of points to warrant their inclusion.

The geographic distribution of the known and reporting associations is given in table 1. As is there shown, more than 80 percent of all the known associations are in the North Central States.

TABLE 1.—*Number of Known and Reporting Cooperative Telephone Associations, by Geographic Division and State*

Geographic division and State	Total known associations		Number furnishing usable reports
	Number [1]	Percent	
United States	3,728	100.00	1,614
New England	34	.91	15
Maine	19	.51	7
New Hampshire	5	.13	2
Vermont	9	.24	6
Massachusetts	1	.03	-------
Middle Atlantic	70	1.88	36
New York	22	.59	18
New Jersey	1	.03	-------
Pennsylvania	47	1.26	18
East North Central	493	13.23	223
Ohio	70	1.88	46
Indiana	135	3.62	52
Illinois	170	4.56	69
Michigan	53	1.42	24
Wisconsin	65	1.74	32
West North Central	2,535	68.00	1,178
Minnesota	1,653	44.34	765
Iowa	272	7.30	137
Missouri	90	2.41	30
North Dakota	162	4.35	81
South Dakota	143	3.83	65
Nebraska	38	1.02	15
Kansas	177	4.75	85
South Atlantic	152	4.08	41
Maryland	8	.22	3
Virginia	64	1.72	24
West Virginia	27	.70	5
South Atlantic—Con.			
North Carolina	18	0.48	7
South Carolina	13	.35	-------
Georgia	19	.51	2
Florida	3	.10	-------
East South Central	44	1.18	8
Kentucky	17	.46	4
Tennessee	16	.43	3
Alabama	9	.24	1
Mississippi	2	.05	-------
West South Central	149	4.00	36
Arkansas	21	.56	2
Louisiana	4	.11	-------
Oklahoma	56	1.50	8
Texas	68	1.82	16
Mountain	96	2.58	22
Montana	39	1.05	14
Idaho	11	.30	4
Wyoming	16	.43	6
Colorado	20	.54	7
New Mexico	4	.11	-------
Utah	4	.11	-------
Nevada	2	.05	1
Pacific	155	4.16	61
Washington	31	.83	20
Oregon	114	3.06	40
California	10	.27	1

[1] Subject to revision.

Extent of Cooperative Telephone Movement

The Bureau of the Census every 5 years makes a count of the number of telephone companies and telephones in use in the United States. Its reports classify the companies into two groups—those with annual gross incomes of $10,000 and over and those whose income is less than that amount.

Its latest report covered the year 1932. In that year it found that there were 44,828 telephone systems in the United States, of which 918 (or less than 2½ percent) had incomes of $10,000 or over. But the network of that 2½ percent was serving about 93½ percent of the nearly 17½ million telephones in use that year. This was an average of slightly more than 17,700 telephones for each of the larger systems, whereas the small companies were averaging only about 26 telephones each.

TABLE 2.—*Development of Large and Small Telephone Companies Since 1922* [1]

Year	Companies with annual gross incomes of—				Number of telephones per 10,000 population
	$10,000 or over		Under $10,000		
	Number of telephones in use	Average number per company	Number of telephones in use	Average number per company	
1922	12,295,234	9,293	2,052,161	37	130
1927	16,712,495	12,217	1,810,272	31	155
1932	16,284,231	17,739	1,140,175	26	139

[1] Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. Census of Electrical Industries, 1932—Telephones and Telegraphs Washington, 1934.

The returns in the Bureau of Labor Statistics study indicate that most of the mutual and cooperative companies would fall within the small-company classification,[2] but it cannot be assumed that all of the small systems are either mutual or cooperative. The reports to the Bureau show that a substantial proportion of these smaller systems are owned either by single individuals or by stock companies operating for profit. A further percentage, although calling themselves mutual or cooperative, are actually not now operating along mutual or cooperative lines, whatever they may have done in the beginning.

It is not known how many telephone systems there are in the United States which are functioning cooperatively. A Federal law makes the individual returns and the mailing lists of the Bureau of the Census confidential even as regards other Federal offices, and it is therefore not possible to examine the census files in order to obtain a complete list of companies which might be cooperative.

In the absence of these data the Bureau of Labor Statistics was able to build up a list of some 4,400 associations, but nearly 400 of these proved to have gone out of business and over 300 had to be discarded because they could not qualify under the Bureau's definition of cooperative or semicooperative. That left some 3,700, of which nearly 45 percent were in Minnesota alone.

It is known that, with two exceptions, this is not a complete list of associations. The exceptions are Minnesota and North Dakota, where State-wide cooperative censuses, made as "white-collar" projects under the W. P. A., resulted in finding almost all if not quite all of the associations. It is believed, however, that the list does cover at least 70 percent of the total number of the really cooperative or mutual-cooperative associations in telephone operation in the United States. The list is weak mainly in its coverage of the unincorporated service lines, but many of these are included in the returns from the federated switchboard associations.

[2] Only 5 of the associations included in the present study had gross incomes of $10,000 or over in 1936.

Assuming a total of 5,000 associations functioning either entirely cooperatively or semicooperatively, then on the basis of returns to the Bureau of Labor Statistics it may be estimated that their total membership in 1936 was in the neighborhood of 330,000 and that some 460,000 persons were served by them in that year.

Types of Associations

Of 1,614 reporting associations, almost two-thirds were of the service-line type, about a third were local associations with their own switchboard service, and less than 4 percent were federations of local associations. In the States from which 25 or more associations reported, service lines were in the majority in Minnesota, North Dakota, Oregon, South Dakota, and Wisconsin, whereas in Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, and Ohio it was more common for the telephone associations to own their own switchboards.

The distribution of the associations by type and by State is shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Geographic Distribution of Reporting Cooperative Telephone Associations, by Type, 1936*

Geographic division and State	Number				Percent			
	Total	Locals		Federations with switchboard	Total	Locals		Federations with switchboard
		With switchboard	Without switchboard			With switchboard	Without switchboard	
United States	1,614	554	999	61	100.0	34.3	61.9	3.8
New England	15	4	11	----	100.0	26.7	73.7	----
Maine	7	3	4	----	100.0	42.9	57.1	----
New Hampshire	2	----	2	----	100.0	----	100.0	----
Vermont	6	1	5	----	100.0	16.7	83.3	----
Middle Atlantic	36	10	26	----	100.0	27.8	72.2	----
New York	18	5	13	----	100.0	27.8	72.2	----
Pennsylvania	18	5	13	----	100.0	27.8	72.2	----
East North Central	223	154	55	14	100.0	69.0	24.7	6.3
Ohio	46	42	4	----	100.0	91.3	8.7	----
Indiana	52	42	7	3	100.0	80.8	13.5	5.7
Illinois	69	45	15	9	100.0	65.2	21.7	13.0
Michigan	24	13	9	2	100.0	54.2	37.5	8.3
Wisconsin	32	12	20	----	100.0	37.5	62.5	----
West North Central	1,178	307	831	40	100.0	26.1	70.5	3.4
Minnesota	765	78	681	6	100.0	10.2	89.0	.8
Iowa	137	91	27	19	100.0	66.4	19.7	13.9
Missouri	30	25	2	3	100.0	83.3	6.7	10.0
North Dakota	81	26	55	----	100.0	32.1	67.9	----
South Dakota	65	11	52	2	100.0	16.9	80.0	3.1
Nebraska	15	9	5	1	100.0	60.0	33.3	6.7
Kansas	85	67	9	9	100.0	78.8	10.6	10.6
South Atlantic	41	22	18	1	100.0	53.7	43.9	2.4
Maryland	3	1	2	----	100.0	33.3	66.7	----
Virginia	24	17	6	1	100.0	70.8	25.0	4.2
West Virginia	5	3	2	----	100.0	60.0	40.0	----
North Carolina	7	----	7	----	100.0	----	100.0	----
Georgia	2	1	1	----	100.0	50.0	50.0	----

TABLE 3.—*Geographic Distribution of Reporting Cooperative Telephone Associations, by Type, 1936*—Continued

Geographic division and State	Number				Percent			
	Total	Locals		Federations with switchboard	Total	Locals		Federations with switchboard
		With switchboard	Without switchboard			With switchboard	Without switchboard	
East South Central	8	7	1	----	100.0	87.5	12.5	----
Kentucky	4	3	1	----	100.0	75.0	25.0	----
Tennessee	3	3	----	----	100.0	100.0	----	----
Alabama	1	1	----	----	100.0	100.0	----	----
West South Central	20	15	2	3	100.0	75.0	10.0	15.0
Arkansas	2	1	1	----	100.0	50.0	50.0	----
Oklahoma	8	5	1	2	100.0	62.5	12.5	25.0
Texas	10	9	----	1	100.0	90.0	----	10.0
Mountain	32	12	20	----	100.0	37.5	62.5	----
Montana	14	5	9	----	100.0	35.7	64.3	----
Idaho	4	3	1	----	100.0	75.0	25.0	----
Wyoming	6	----	6	----	100.0	----	100.0	----
Colorado	7	4	3	----	100.0	57.1	42.9	----
Nevada	1	----	1	----	100.0	----	100.0	----
Pacific	61	23	35	3	100.0	37.7	57.4	4.9
California	1	1	----	----	100.0	100.0	----	----
Washington	20	10	9	1	100.0	50.0	45.0	5.0
Oregon	40	12	26	2	100.0	30.0	65.0	5.0

Age of Associations

The reports received from the telephone associations show that these associations are one of the oldest forms of cooperative effort in the United States. The average age for all associations reporting on this point was 26 years. The following statement shows the distribution of associations, by length of time in operation:

	Number of associations
Less than 1 year	2
1 year and under 3 years	10
3 and under 5 years	9
5 and under 10 years	48
10 and under 15 years	45
15 and under 20 years	147
20 and under 25 years	321
25 and under 30 years	400
30 years and over	492
Total	1,474

The largest groups had been formed in the periods 1900 to 1909 (49.5 percent) and 1910 to 1919 (38.0 percent), but 1.3 percent had been in operation since before 1900. The oldest association reporting was started in 1893. Table 4 shows, by States, the distribution of the associations according to the year in which they were formed.

TABLE 4.—*Distribution of Cooperative Telephone Associations, by Period in Which Established*

State	Total number of associations reporting	Number of associations organized in specified period											
		1890 to 1899	1900 to 1909	1910 to 1919	1920 to 1924	1925 to 1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
All associations	1,474	19	730	560	78	50	10	6	7	2	7	3	2
Alabama	1			1									
Arkansas	1				1								
California	1			1									
Colorado	7		2	5									
Georgia	2			1	1								
Idaho	4		2	2									
Illinois	61	3	44	9	3	1		1					
Indiana	46	1	37	7	1								
Iowa	122		76	22	7	8	3	1	2		[1] 2		
Kansas	81		59	15	3		1			1	2		1
Kentucky	4			1	2	1							
Maine	7		5	2									
Maryland	2	1	1										
Michigan	18		14	3		1							
Minnesota	700	11	309	[2] 326	32	14	1	2	1	1	1	2	
Missouri	25	1	18	5		1							
Montana	14		2	9	2	1							
Nebraska	14		9	4	1								
Nevada	1			1									
New Hampshire	2		1	1									
New York	18		12	3	3								
North Carolina	6		1	3		1					1		
North Dakota	78		16	50	4	6	1		1				
Ohio	44		34	6			2					1	1
Oklahoma	7		4	3									
Oregon	37	1	9	11	3	7	2	1	2		1		
Pennsylvania	17		12	4	1								
South Dakota	58		22	31	3	1			1				
Tennessee	3			2		1							
Texas	9		3	3	2	1							
Vermont	4		4										
Virginia	22	1	9	10	2								
Washington	18		6	8		4							
West Virginia	5		1	2	2								
Wisconsin	30		17	6	4	2		1					
Wyoming	5		1	3	1								

[1] 1 reorganized; no information on date first established.
[2] 1 established in 1911; reorganized in 1936.

Membership and Subscribers Served

The telephone associations ranged in size from 2 to 4,025 but were generally small. Of the whole group, 48.5 percent had fewer than 25 members each and 67.8 percent had fewer than 50 members each. Less than one-fifth had more than 100 members and only 1.2 percent had 500 members or more. (Table 5.)

TABLE 5.—*Distribution of Cooperative Telephone Associations by Number of Members, 1936*

Classified membership	Operating switchboards		Not operating switchboards		Both types of associations	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Fewer than 10 members	7	1.5	166	16.8	173	11.4
10 and under 25 members	35	6.6	530	53.5	565	37.1
25 and under 50 members	92	17.3	201	20.3	293	19.3
50 and under 100 members	123	23.2	64	6.5	187	12.3
100 and under 250 members	201	37.9	26	2.6	227	14.9
250 and under 500 members	55	10.4	3	.3	58	3.8
500 and under 1,000 members	10	1.9	1	.1	11	.7
1,000 members and over	8	1.5	----	----	8	.5
Total	531	100.0	991	100.0	1,522	100.0

As would be expected, the service-line associations were the smaller of the two types of associations shown in table 5. Seventy percent of these had fewer than 25 members and 90 percent fewer than 50 members. As table 6 indicates, they averaged only 27 members each, as compared with 161 members in the associations having their own switchboards. The central, or federated associations, had in membership an average of 24 local associations each.

The 1,522 local associations reporting as to membership had a combined total of 110,981 members at the end of 1936, or an average of 66 persons each. More than three-fourths of these were members of local associations operating their own switchboards.

Not all of these members were also subscribers at the end of the year. In some cases shareholders had moved out of the territory served by the association, and though retaining their stock in the organization were no longer using its facilities. Reports from other associations indicated that, low as the rates or assessments were, there nevertheless were members whose financial condition was such that they could no longer afford the service. The number of inactive members was more than counterbalanced by the nonmember patrons, however, so that the number of active subscribers of the local associations at the end of 1936 exceeded the number of shareholders by 25,185.

TABLE 6.—*Membership and Subscribers of Cooperative Telephone Associations, 1936, by Type of Association*

Type of association	Membership			Subscribers		
	Number of associations reporting	Members	Average	Number of associations reporting	Members	Average
Local associations	1,522	110,981	66	1,542	136,166	88
Operating switchboards	529	85,041	161	549	109,274	199
Not operating switchboards	993	25,940	27	993	26,892	27
Federated or central associations operating switchboards	50	[1] 1,198	[1] 24	56	11,641	208

[1] Number of member associations.

Fifty-six associations, composed of 1,198 member associations of the service-line type, reported a total of 11,641 subscribers. Although there is a small amount of duplication, in number of subscribers reported, as between the local service-line associations and the federated central associations, it is safe to say that the reporting associations were serving over 147,000 families at the end of 1936.

The total and average membership and subscribers are shown, by geographic divisions and States, in table 7. It is evident from this table that 87 percent of the local associations reporting and 81 percent of the membership were in the North Central States. The largest associations were in the State of Washington where the average membership was 339, followed by Idaho with 296. In Minnesota, which had the largest number of associations, the average membership was only 37 but this was because of the unusually large proportion of the small service lines.

A considerable margin between average membership and average number of subscribers was shown in some States, notably Iowa, Nebraska, Oklahoma, and Washington. Undoubtedly this was due to some extent to requirements by State commissions making it compulsory upon the associations to serve all applicants (whether members or not) in the area in which they have license to operate.

TABLE 7.—*Membership and Subscribers, 1936, by Division and State*

Geographic division and State	Type of association	Membership			Subscribers		
		Associations reporting	Members	Average per association	Associations reporting	Members	Average per association
United States	Local	1,522	110,981	66	1,542	136,166	88
	Central	50	[1] 1,198	[1] 24	56	11,641	208
New England	Local	14	1,774	127	14	1,534	110
Maine	do	7	1,554	222	7	1,316	188
New Hampshire	do	2	58	29	2	56	28
Vermont	do	5	162	32	5	162	32
Middle Atlantic	do	36	1,298	36	36	1,683	47
New York	do	18	747	42	18	1,062	59
Pennsylvania	do	18	551	31	18	621	35
East North Central	do	204	22,011	108	207	26,365	127
	Central	13	[1] 282	[1] 22	13	2,803	216
Ohio	Local	45	5,542	123	46	6,482	141
Indiana	do	49	5,151	105	49	6,251	128
	Central	2	[1] 37	[1] 19	3	364	121
Illinois	Local	59	7,152	121	59	9,050	153
	Central	9	[1] 208	[1] 23	8	1,889	236
Michigan	Local	19	1,976	104	21	2,040	97
	Central	2	[1] 37	[1] 19	2	550	275
Wisconsin	Local	32	2,190	68	32	2,542	79
West North Central	do	1,115	67,416	60	1,131	82,399	75
	Central	32	[1] 801	[1] 25	36	7,845	218
Minnesota	Local	743	27,744	37	756	32,753	43
	Central	5	[1] 120	[1] 24	5	594	119
Iowa	Local	114	16,674	146	115	21,803	190
	Central	14	[1] 438	[1] 31	18	4,358	242
Missouri	Local	26	3,608	139	27	4,376	162
	Central	3	[1] 71	[1] 24	3	760	253
North Dakota	Local	80	3,839	48	81	3,854	48
South Dakota	do	63	1,938	31	63	2,386	38
	Central	2	[1] 16	[1] 8	1	70	70
Nebraska	Local	14	2,530	181	14	3,734	267
	Central	1	[1] 6	[1] 6	1	275	275
Kansas	Local	75	11,083	148	75	13,493	180
	Central	7	[1] 150	[1] 21	8	1,788	224
South Atlantic	Local	40	5,725	143	40	5,934	148
	Central	1	[1] 30	[1] 30	1	210	210
Maryland	Local	3	277	92	3	352	117
Virginia	do	23	4,952	215	23	5,003	218
	Central	1	[1] 30	[1] 30	1	210	210
West Virginia	Local	5	312	62	5	385	77
North Carolina	do	7	149	21	7	154	22
Georgia	do	2	35	18	2	40	20
East South Central	do	8	689	86	8	726	91
Kentucky	do	4	185	46	4	209	52
Tennessee	do	3	490	163	3	498	166
Alabama	do	1	14	14	1	19	19
West South Central	do	16	1,605	100	16	2,448	153
	Central	3	[1] 81	[1] 27	3	195	65
Arkansas	Local	2	43	22	2	43	22
Oklahoma	do	6	722	120	6	1,592	265
	Central	2	[1] 74	[1] 37	2	155	78
Texas	Local	8	840	105	8	813	102
	Central	1	[1] 7	[1] 7	1	40	40
Mountain	Local	32	2,215	69	32	2,136	67
Montana	do	14	635	45	14	464	33
Idaho	do	4	1,182	296	4	1,195	299
Wyoming	do	6	100	17	6	84	14
Colorado	do	7	288	41	7	383	55
Nevada	do	1	10	10	1	10	10
Pacific	do	57	8,248	145	58	12,941	223
	Central	1	[1] 4	[1] 4	3	588	196
California	Local	1	33	33	1	33	33
Washington	do	18	6,110	339	19	10,643	560
	Central	1	[1] 4	[1] 4	1	20	20
Oregon	Local	38	2,105	55	38	2,265	60
	Central	----------	----------	----------	2	568	284

[1] Number of member associations.

The associations appear to have been losing ground as regards membership. Of 1,305 societies which reported number of members for both 1935 and 1936, the membership in the latter year showed an increase in 184, a decrease in 218, and remained unchanged in 903.

Some relation between period of operation and membership was indicated, in the reporting associations. Thus, of 62 associations which had been in existence for less than 10 years, all but 17 had fewer than 50 members. On the other hand no associations less than 15 years of age had attained a membership of 500 or more and the only associations with 1,000 or more members were 5 which had all been operating for 20 years or longer (3 of these, for 30 years or longer).

Legal Status and Cooperative Practice

LEGAL STATUS

The so-called "Rochdale principles" practiced among the distributive and service associations are somewhat modified in the telephone associations by conditions in their field of business, by the wish of the members, or by the terms of the acts under which they operate. Although unincorporated associations may operate on any basis they choose, the business procedure of any incorporated organization is determined to a certain extent by the statute under which it has been incorporated. Thus, the general corporation acts usually specify that the stockholder shall have one vote for every share of stock he owns, that any dividends paid shall be paid on the stock, and that proxy voting must be permitted—all of which requirements are in direct contravention of the cooperative principles. Sometimes also the State constitution contains sections covering such business procedure as voting by shares or by proxy.

The cooperative statutes vary considerably in their requirements from State to State. The best ones enumerate the cooperative principles, in defining what constitutes a cooperative, and specify adherence to these standards as a requirement for operation under the act. But by no means can all of these cooperative statutes be said to be adequate in the sense of defining and compelling compliance with the Rochdale principles. Wide variations from the accepted practice, and equally unfortunate omissions, are found in the provisions of the State acts.

Of the 1,292 telephone associations which reported their legal status, 787 were incorporated and 505 were unincorporated. The small service lines appeared to be more likely to remain informal associations, while the larger organizations giving switchboard service were generally incorporated. That this distinction was by no means always true, however, is indicated by the fact that some service-line

associations with as few as half a dozen members were found to be incorporated. There were, nevertheless, some service-line groups that not only had not incorporated but had never even had what could be called an association. One such association reported that there had never been even a signed agreement among the members. A few neighbors had assembled, strung their poles and wire, and negotiated for switching service from the telephone company in the nearest town; one member acted as secretary in collecting "switching fees" to be paid to the company and in carrying on any necessary correspondence. That was all there was to it.

A great many of the telephone associations were formed before there was any State cooperative law under which they could be established and they therefore incorporated as stock companies under the general corporation act; a good many of these, in practice, however, have operated as mutuals. Comparatively few appear to have been established under the cooperative statutes. In 1933 the Wisconsin Public Service Commission had a check made of the incorporation records in that State. This revealed that, although the State cooperative statute is broad enough to cover telephone operation, only four associations had elected to incorporate under it; most of the others had been formed as mutuals.

Again, telephone companies are in many States regarded as public utilities or common carriers and, as such, are subject to regulation by State commissions. A number of States exempt from such regulation associations operating as pure mutuals (i. e., serving members only and having no predetermined rates but assessing all members their pro rata share of the cost of operation); service extended to even one nonmember subjects the association to regulation by the State commission. Some of the regulations imposed by these State commissions also place obstacles in the way of completely cooperative practice. Thus, in States where operating territory is apportioned, company by company, and exclusive rights are given therein, State commissions generally require the companies to serve all applicants for service whether they are stockholders or not. And in some cases the companies are specifically prohibited from making any distinction in the rates charged to members and to nonmembers. The result is that where nonmembers can get the same service as members and at the same rate, there is little inducement to take out membership in the cooperative association. Such has been the effect of this that, in States where this regulation is in force, many associations have a greater number of nonmember than member subscribers.

As is evident, therefore, the rate of observance of the cooperative principles among the telephone associations is dependent to a considerable extent upon these legal and regulatory requirements.

COOPERATIVE PRACTICE

In general the practice of open membership is followed by the telephone associations. Limitation, where found, was generally that imposed by the capacity of the facilities owned. Thus several associations reported that membership was limited to 15, 18, or 20—the load limit of the party line owned by the association. A few associations required that the prospective member must live in the territory served by the association and thus be in a position to utilize the telephone facilities. Only four associations were found which imposed any other restriction. In two of these, membership was open only to farmers, and in one farmers were specifically excluded. The fourth association (located in Texas) barred Negroes from membership.

Voting.—Roughly, 80 percent of the reporting associations allowed only one vote per member, and about 75 percent prohibited voting by proxy. In the federations, member associations had one vote each. In one case, however, a number of party lines, all in rural districts, had federated and bought their own switchboard which was set up in a village centrally located. At the same time, service was extended to the villagers. The rural service was still operated on the assessment basis, and the members continued to provide and maintain their own telephones and lines, but the village subscribers were renters and were charged a flat rate. In this association each of the local member associations (i. e., the party lines) had one vote in the affairs of the association and the villagers were given one vote for every 10 subscribers.

Share capital.—In the associations with capital stock one of the conditions of membership was the purchase of at least one share. The pure mutuals and some of the cooperative associations were membership organizations without capital stock. In the pure mutuals the usual practice, at the time the lines were built, had been for the members to divide the total cost equally among themselves, the pro rata share being regarded as the cost of "membership." In at least one case, the association later issued shares, the par value of which was based upon the amount of contribution of the original members.

Generally when a member wishes to withdraw from the organization, he must find a purchaser for his share, but some associations purchase his share at par value or net worth, whichever is lower.

Analysis of the policies of the associations indicates that less than 5 percent make a practice of paying interest on share capital. In these associations therefore, although they are organized as capital-stock associations, the share may be regarded as only a membership certificate. Of 33 associations which make a practice of paying interest on share capital, 14 limit the rate of return—one to 4 percent, five to 5 percent, three to 6 percent, one to 7 percent, three to 8 percent, and

one to 10 percent. Only 23 made any return on shares in 1936, the rates ranging from 2 to 8 percent.

Patronage refunds.—The return of surpluses earned on the year's operations, in proportion to patronage, is not common among the telephone associations. The main reason for this is that there is generally no surplus to return. About three-fourths of the associations operate on the assessment basis. The assessment may be levied upon all members alike, or may be in proportion either to the amount of shares held or to the telephones in use. Whatever the basis, the total amount is set only high enough to cover operating expenses. Those associations which do operate on a predetermined monthly rate usually aim to fix that rate only high enough to cover the actual cost of service. In the grocery trade and retail gasoline business there is a "current price" which is easily known, and which provides for a margin sufficient to cover operating expenses plus a profit to the dealer. In other words, the member of a grocery cooperative voluntarily advances to his association this difference between actual cost and the current price. It is from this "overcharge" that he receives his patronage refund at the end of the operating period. Most of the telephone associations, however, are operating in a business field and in districts where there has been no current rate, and their low rates afford little or no surplus.

Among the associations covered by the present study only 29 reported that they had returned a patronage refund for 1936. They had rebated the sum of $7,168, which was an average of $3.23 for each of their members. The practice of one additional association was to divide any surplus equally among the members—a purely mutual procedure—and it was the custom of another to give free service until the surplus was exhausted.

Operative and Administrative Procedure

The larger switchboard associations operate like any other telephone company, with directors, officers, manager, linemen, and operators. The directors, however, are generally either unpaid or receive only a small fee for attendance at meetings. Full-time officers and all employees are on a salary status.

There is little formal procedure in the operation of the service lines. Generally most of the actual work is carried on by a secretary, elected from the membership, who may contribute his services or may receive a small annual amount for his work. In some of the very small associations the secretary is the only officer and there are no paid employees.

The associations which have no switchboard of their own naturally need no operators. In the smaller associations which give switchboard service, it was found that service may be provided for in one of several

different ways: (1) One or more operators may be hired at a flat monthly or yearly rate, the association being responsible for the payment of the salary; (2) the operator may be guaranteed a certain sum per year, each member being directly responsible to the operator for his share; (3) the operator may be hired on a contingent or commission basis, receiving either a specified commission on the total business (calls made) or a flat rate per call; (4) the switchboard may be placed in the home of one of the members and operated by the family, either gratuitously or for a small yearly amount. A fifth method had been resorted to in a few instances, mainly in territories where the economic situation of the association and its members was desperate; there the procedure was to turn over the switchboard (though still retaining ownership) to some person or family willing to take over its operation for the small amounts receivable in annual switchboard fees or for a small amount per call; generally such arrangements were undertaken by a local family simply to obtain some small supplementary income

PROPERTIES AND EQUIPMENT

Data as to miles of lines owned by the associations were available for only 239 organizations. These had a total of 7,139.8 miles, an average of 29.9 miles each. If this average can be regarded as representative of the whole group, then the associations covered in this report own and operate about 45,000 miles of line.

As already indicated, the associations usually own the poles and wire along the main right of way. The wire and poles necessary to carry the service from the highway to the members' homes, however, must be furnished by the member in over three-fifths of the service lines, and in nearly two-fifths of the local associations operating their own switchboards. In over three-fourths of the service lines, and three-fifths of the local switchboard associations, the member must also supply his own telephone instrument. Many of the associations furnish service only to members; if nonmember subscribers are served, instruments are furnished by the association, either (1) at a specified monthly rental for the instrument but with switching service at the same rate as for members, or (2) at a higher flat service rate than for members, the difference being in consideration of furnishing instrument and maintenance of line.

The larger companies, particularly those which charge a stipulated monthly rate, utilize part of their revenues for the maintenance and repair of lines and equipment. In the smaller companies it is the general practice that a considerable amount of the repair and maintenance work on the association's lines is done by the members themselves. Of the 1,224 companies reporting on this point, in 692 (57 percent) the members are responsible for the repair of their instru-

ments, the replacement of batteries, and the upkeep of their wire as far as the main line.

In some associations when repairs on the main lines are needed, either the members all contribute the necessary services or a lineman (who may be a professional from one of the private companies or simply one of the cooperative members) is hired. Some associations permit certain members to pay all or part of their assessment in services. In at least one association one member is elected as lineman each year and receives a small sum for his services.

Sometimes the association holds a "bee." Thus one society reports: "Every fall the members go out 1 day, in a body, all over the line, reset poles and insulators and do everything possible to keep expenses down to a minimum."

Finances

The associations were asked to supply data on gross and net income, paid-in share capital, net worth, bills and accounts payable, and total assets.

The financial data thus obtained were far from complete and not altogether satisfactory. Most of the switchboard associations (especially the larger ones) had good accounting and bookkeeping. A large proportion of the service-line associations, however, operate on an informal basis, and many of them keep few accounts. It was found that the determination of the associations' net worth, for instance, was impossible in many cases. It will be noted, in table 11, that the number of organizations reporting varies widely from point to point. Sometimes early records had been lost. Often no record had been kept of the value of original installations, equipment or replacements. Some reported "no net worth," even though sizeable sums had been invested, the plant was still in good operating condition, and there were few or no debts outstanding against the organization. It is more than likely therefore that the aggregate net worth, even of associations reporting, is considerably greater than that shown in table 8.

RESOURCES

Of 505 associations which reported as to amount of assets, 42 percent had total resources of less than $1,000, about 36 percent had resources of from $1,000 to $5,000, and only a little over 11 percent had assets of $10,000 or over (table 8). The assets of the service-line associations were small; in about 42 percent they were less than $500 and in 65 percent were under $1,000.

TABLE 8.—*Distribution of Cooperative Associations by Amount of Assets at End of 1936*

State	Total number reporting	Number of associations with assets of—							
		Under $500	$500 and under $1,000	$1,000 and under $2,000	$2,000 and under $5,000	$5,000 and under $10,000	$10,000 and under $25,000	$25,000 and under $50,000	$50,000 and over
All associations	505	125	87	81	99	56	38	14	5
Locals operating switchboard	261	29	29	37	67	45	36	13	5
Locals not operating switchboard	227	95	53	40	30	7	1	1	
Federations operating switchboard	17	1	5	4	2	4	1		
Alabama	1			1					
California	1	1							
Colorado	3	2			1				
Idaho	2						1	1	
Illinois	24	3	7	2	5	4	1	2	
Indiana	24	1	2	2	10	8	1		
Iowa	32	3	4	8	6	5	4	2	
Kansas	42	8	4	12	9	5	3	1	
Kentucky	1	1							
Maine	2	1					1		
Maryland	1						1		
Michigan	11	3	2	3	3				
Minnesota	202	65	43	25	28	16	16	7	2
Missouri	7		1	3	2	1			
Montana	10	4		1	3	1		1	
Nebraska	11	1		1	5	1	2		1
New Hampshire	1	1							
New York	2				1		1		
North Carolina	2	2							
North Dakota	25	3	7	6	3	4	2		
Ohio	12			2	7	2	1		
Oklahoma	5	2		1	1		1		
Oregon	14	6	2	4	1	1			
Pennsylvania	7	1	2	2	1	1			
South Dakota	20	10	3	2	3	2			
Tennessee	2	2							
Texas	4		4						
Virginia	7	1	2	3		1			
Washington	15	2	2	1	4	3	1		2
West Virginia	3	1	1	1					
Wisconsin	11	1	1		6	1	2		
Wyoming	1			1					

For the 505 associations reporting, total assets amounted to $2,719,155. A combined net worth of $2,446,111 was reported by 422 associations and a paid-in share capital of $2,413,895 by 750 associations (table 9).

TABLE 9.—*Resources, and Bills Payable, of Cooperative Telephone Associations, at end of 1936*

Type of society	Total assets		Net worth		Paid-in share capital			Bills and accounts payable	
	Number reporting	Amount	Number reporting	Amount	Number reporting	Amount	Number of non-stock associations	Number reporting	Amount
All associations	505	$2,719,155	[1] 422	[1] $2,446,111	750	$2,413,895	230	228	$191,770
Locals operating switchboard	261	2,379,385	[1] 227	[1] 1,970,912	343	1,781,641	87	130	170,689
Locals not operating switchboard	227	288,252	176	240,960	396	545,780	119	91	17,567
Federations operating switchboard	17	51,518	19	234,239	11	86,474	24	7	3,514
New England	3	17,448	4	15,852	6	20,307	2	2	460
Maine	2	17,198	2	15,177	3	16,333	1	2	460
New Hampshire	1	250	1	275	------	----------	1	------	---------
Vermont	------	----------	1	400	3	3,974	------	------	---------
Middle Atlantic	9	23,585	6	13,448	12	14,725	4	7	3,233
New York	2	15,617	3	11,008	4	6,625	------	2	2,300
Pennsylvania	7	7,968	3	2,440	8	8,100	4	5	933
East North Central	82	346,011	73	310,994	118	377,353	46	48	23,264
Ohio	12	50,037	9	32,172	21	91,378	15	12	5,240
Indiana	24	98,609	19	79,067	25	68,041	10	8	2,645
Illinois	24	120,683	22	101,300	37	112,877	15	12	6,123
Michigan	11	18,087	8	29,164	11	23,827	3	7	3,706
Wisconsin	11	58,595	15	69,291	24	81,230	3	9	5,550
West North Central	339	1,724,120	288	1,621,915	519	1,691,617	159	137	88,305
Minnesota	202	1,023,381	[1] 143	[1] 697,623	304	730,599	85	68	22,610
Iowa	32	194,770	46	426,125	70	360,330	28	16	25,435
Missouri	7	14,200	7	10,500	7	16,503	9	2	695
North Dakota	25	84,992	26	100,487	46	212,145	9	22	14,598
South Dakota	20	30,109	18	33,887	34	78,287	9	12	4,220
Nebraska	11	221,826	10	214,692	13	86,104	------	5	5,634
Kansas	42	154,842	38	138,601	45	207,649	19	12	15,113
South Atlantic	13	24,101	9	22,633	20	44,513	2	7	3,113
Maryland	1	10,306	1	7,173	1	4,300	------	1	2,482
Virginia	7	10,910	5	13,235	14	34,853	2	4	561
West Virginia	3	2,650	2	2,050	3	4,710	------	2	70
North Carolina	2	235	1	175	2	650	------	------	---------
East South Central	4	1,949	1	400	5	7,244	------	3	1,112
Kentucky	1	400	------	----------	2	1,409	------	2	1,037
Tennessee	2	517	1	400	2	4,540	------	1	75
Alabama	1	1,032	------	----------	1	1,295	------	------	---------
West South Central	9	22,270	7	10,707	6	17,380	6	------	---------
Arkansas	------	----------	1	50	------	----------	------	------	---------
Oklahoma	5	19,720	3	8,369	3	11,800	2	------	---------
Texas	4	2,550	3	2,288	3	5,580	4	------	---------
Mountain	16	118,348	13	87,806	18	114,928	4	9	738
Montana	10	46,479	8	31,029	10	28,777	1	2	84
Idaho	2	65,284	2	49,414	4	63,399	------	3	261
Wyoming	1	1,527	1	1,577	2	12,755	------	1	168
Colorado	3	5,058	2	5,786	2	9,997	2	3	225
Nevada	------	----------	------	----------	------	----------	1	------	---------
Pacific	30	441,323	21	362,356	46	125,828	7	15	71,545
California	1	50	------	----------	------	----------	1	------	---------
Washington	15	424,139	9	329,733	17	88,154	1	9	70,232
Oregon	14	17,134	12	32,623	29	37,674	5	6	1,313

[1] Not including 1 society which reported a deficit of $6,438.

For the associations reporting both amount of share capital and membership, the average member's investment (in share capital) was $36.33.

Bills and accounts payable at the end of 1936 were reported by 228 associations, in an aggregate amount of $191,770. An additional 642 associations stated that they had no debts.

INCOME AND EARNINGS

The figures for revenues, given in table 10, can be regarded as only approximate. In many cases no exact records of income and expenses are kept. Often the only expense in the service-line associations is the monthly switching charge and even this may be paid by each subscriber directly to the company which provides switchboard service, so that this money may not pass through the hands of the local treasurer. If repairs are needed for which labor must be hired or materials bought, each member is assessed his pro rata share. In the figures of revenues here given, however, the association has been credited with the total amount of switching fees paid, where this was known; no estimate could be made of value of repairs.

The 1,536 associations reporting gross revenue in 1936 had an aggregate of $1,486,761, of which over three-fourths was reported by the local associations giving switchboard service, about one-seventh by the service lines, and the remainder by the federations. There were 495 associations which made a net gain during the year; for the 494 which reported the amount the combined total was $90,030. On the other hand 163 associations had a loss; in the 153 which reported the amount this totaled $20,649. Altogether the whole number of associations furnishing returns on this point had combined net earnings of $69,381. This small net can be attributed mainly to the preponderance of associations operating on the assessment basis. These collect only enough revenue to cover expenses. In the words of one association: "Our profit is service at cost."

TABLE 10.—*Income and Earnings of Cooperative Telephone Associations, 1936, by States*

State	Gross revenue		Net gain		Net loss		Net earnings, all societies [1]	
	Number reporting	Amount	Number reporting	Amount	Number reporting	Amount	Number reporting	Amount
All associations	1,536	$1,486,761	[2] 495	$90,030	[3] 163	$20,649	[4] 658	$69,381
Locals operating switchboard	539	1,164,263	[2] 222	71,929	[5] 84	17,016	[6] 306	54,913
Locals not operating switchboard	941	211,971	252	9,945	[7] 68	2,720	[7] 320	7,225
Federations operating switchboards	56	110,527	21	8,156	[8] 11	913	[8] 32	7,243
Alabama	1	890			1	114	1	[9] 114
Colorado	6	3,709	1	137			1	137
Georgia	1	96						
Idaho	4	26,507	3	762			3	762
Illinois	61	108,435	20	6,332	4	95	24	6,237
Indiana	51	70,573	[2] 22	3,635	[8] 6	529	[10] 28	3,106
Iowa	127	289,551	49	17,185	[11] 17	1,911	[11] 66	15,274
Kansas	84	142,937	36	5,691	[8] 20	3,108	[8] 56	2,583
Kentucky	3	1,400						
Maine	7	17,857	3	766			3	766
Maryland	2	3,998	1	367			1	367
Michigan	24	38,304	16	8,625	1	50	17	8,575
Minnesota	741	276,146	232	20,879	[12] 68	5,201	[12] 300	15,678
Missouri	30	35,341	6	2,581	3	250	9	2,331
Montana	14	4,430	4	100	1	54	5	46
Nebraska	15	56,826			9	5,265	9	[9] 5,265
Nevada	1	84						
New Hampshire	2	582						
New York	6	6,858	2	94	1	377	3	[9] 283
North Carolina	7	885						
North Dakota	78	45,237	18	3,838	[8] 6	776	[8] 24	3,062
Ohio	44	69,770	19	3,912	6	1,159	25	2,753
Oklahoma	7	15,520	3	129			3	129
Oregon	40	26,604	10	2,823	2	91	12	2,732
Pennsylvania	18	6,252	7	436	3	219	10	217
South Dakota	62	26,463	19	955	4	355	23	600
Tennessee	3	5,010						
Texas	9	5,743	3	10	2	191	5	[9] 181
Vermont	5	3,055			1	127	1	[9] 127
Virginia	23	27,428	4	442			4	442
Washington	20	133,013	6	8,166	[11] 4	33	[11] 10	8,133
West Virginia	4	2,210	2	190			2	190
Wisconsin	30	34,435	9	1,975	4	744	13	1,231
Wyoming	6	612						

[1] Not including 320 associations which reported "no net earnings" for the year.
[2] Includes 1 association reporting small gain, amount not stated.
[3] Includes 10 associations which did not report amount of loss.
[4] Includes 10 associations reporting loss and 1 reporting gain, amount not stated.
[5] Includes 5 associations which did not report amount of loss.
[6] Includes 1 association reporting gain, and 5 reporting loss, amount not stated.
[7] Includes 4 associations which did not report amount of loss.
[8] Includes 1 association which did not report amount of loss.
[9] Loss.
[10] Includes 1 association reporting gain and 1 reporting loss, amount not stated.
[11] Includes 2 associations which did not report amount of loss.
[12] Includes 3 associations which did not report amount of loss.

Only five of the associations included in the present study had gross revenues in 1936 amounting to $10,000 or over. The revenues of these ranged from $11,205 to $67,000.

Housing Conditions

HOUSING AND HOUSING FINANCE IN AMERICAN CITIES

BY COMBINING the results of the Real Property Inventory and the Financial Survey of Urban Housing, both conducted by the U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, those interested in the betterment of living conditions in the United States are furnished with valuable data for planning purposes.[1] Primarily covering accommodations as they existed in 1933, these reports deal with the predominant types of housing, including substandard units, and also show the ratio of owner-occupied to rented dwellings, the proportion of income spent on rent, the importance of mortgaged buildings in housing finance and contract, as well as effective rates of interest on both owner-occupied and rental properties. Statistics are presented for 64 individual cities included in the inventory of property and for 61 cities under the financial survey, in addition to country-wide summaries. The date of inauguration of this survey coincided with the time of the broadening of Federal policy in housing questions, and the results supply essential economic and financial information on residential properties which heretofore has been lacking.

Condition of Housing[2]

In investigating 2,633,135 dwelling units in 64 American cities the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce found that nearly 80 percent of the structures were of the single-family type, 2-family houses made up 13 percent of the total, and the remaining 8 percent were of other kinds including apartment houses. The relatively low proportion of apartment houses is doubtless accounted for by the omission of the largest cities from the survey.

On the average, owner-occupied dwellings were larger than rented units. Over 83 percent of the single-family houses occupied by owners had 5 or more rooms, as compared with 63 percent of the rented houses. One- and 2-room units represented only 1.7 percent of the total owner-occupied dwellings and 5.2 percent of those rented.

[1] U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Real Property Inventory, 1934. Summary and 64 Cities Combined, Washington, 1935, mimeographed; Financial Survey of Urban Housing, Statistics on Financial Aspects of Urban Housing, Washington, 1937.

[2] For a fuller description of the findings from the Real Property Inventory see Monthly Labor Review, March 1935 (pp. 723-729).

It was also found that owner-occupied houses had relatively more conveniences of specified types. For example 90.6 percent of all the homes investigated had electricity for lighting, but in rented houses the percentage was 87.5 as compared with 95.4 in the owner-occupied dwellings. Gas for cooking was available in 69 percent of all the houses, mechanical refrigeration in 17.0 percent, indoor water-closets in 82.9 percent, and baths in 76.7 percent. The report reviewed commented on the large extent to which sanitary plumbing was absent in residential buildings in the cities surveyed.

On the basis of a standard of occupancy of one person to a room, 17.1 percent of the dwellings were overcrowded. In 379,434 units, making up 15.6 percent of the total, the number of persons to a room was 1 to 2; in 29,283 (1.2 percent of the total) it was 2 to 3; and in 6,120 (0.3 percent) it was over 3.

Owner-occupied single-family homes valued at $3,000 to $4,999 represented 29.1 percent of the total on which valuation was reported; 41.6 percent were valued at less than $3,000, and the remaining group at $5,000 and over. Eight percent fell in the lowest valuation class, under $1,000, and 1.5 percent were valued at $20,000 and over. The modal rental for all tenant-occupied units was $20 to $29.99 per month (25.9 percent of the total). Of single-family tenant dwellings, the classes at rental under $10, $10 to $14.99, and $20 to $29.99, each accounted for over 20 percent of the total and together made up 63.2 percent. Multiple-family tenant dwellings brought a modal monthly rental of $20 to $29.99 (28.5 percent of the total).

Rating the occupied dwellings by their condition, the Department of Commerce concluded that 39.0 percent were in good condition, 44.5 percent were in need of minor repairs, 14.7 were in need of major repairs, and 1.7 were unfit for use. No information was obtained on 0.1 percent. Of the occupied units, 83.5 percent were either in good condition or in need of minor repairs, as compared with 67.7 percent of those that were vacant.

Financial Status

In choosing cities to be covered in the Financial Survey of Urban Housing, consideration was given to variety in size and location in order to make the sample "sufficiently representative to give national significance to the results." In the 61 cities covered by the financial survey, 163,059 families made up the tenant sample. This represented 11.9 percent of the 1,366,443 families scheduled in the real-property inventory. The number of owner occupants in the sample was 133,478, or 14.9 percent of the 897,903 families included in the real-property inventory. Material was tabulated for 52 cities, and the findings here discussed relate to that sample. A considerable

part of the financial study was devoted to family income, this being the controlling factor in limiting expenditures for housing. Tenants tended to spend 25 percent of their income on rent. Those with higher than average incomes required smaller proportions for rent and those in the lower brackets spent a substantially higher proportion for rent. Values of owner-occupied homes averaged 2 to 3 times the annual family income; and total incomes of owner occupants averaged nearly one-third above those of tenants in the same city. The difference in total income was roughly proportionate to the difference in values of dwellings occupied in the two groups.

In cities located in the same general vicinity, conditions as to values and rents tended to be similar, with certain exceptions. Differences between areas are, of course, largely due to differences in climate between the North and the South. It is more common to find large dwellings in older, more settled areas of the Northeastern States than elsewhere. Age of dwellings, also, affects valuations and rents.

Owing to the importance of credit in ownership of real estate and in the revival of the real-estate market, special attention was given to the financing of residential buildings. An average of 58.3 percent of the owner-occupied dwellings covered were mortgaged, the ratio varying from 24 to 84 percent in the 52 cities. For rented properties the proportion mortgaged was 42.8 percent. The outstanding debt on mortgaged properties averaged more than half the value in most of the cities. The average ratio of mortgage debt to value was 55.6 percent for owner-occupied units and 60.4 for rented dwellings. These figures indicate the importance of credit in housing and show further that, where used, credit forms a more substantial part of value than the owner's equity.

Contract interest rates on first mortgages averaged nearly 6.5 percent on owner-occupied houses; rates were lowest in the Northeast and highest in the South and West. Effective rates of interest—that is, the total cost of credit after adding financing charges incident to loans—averaged about one-third of 1 percent above the contract rate. In general the interest rates on owner-occupied houses were lower than on those rented. Considerable differences in rates charged were noted between financing agencies and between geographical areas. Of the agencies lending money on real estate, individuals made up 19.7 percent, followed by savings banks (17.2 percent), commercial banks (16.5 percent), life insurance companies (15 percent), and building and loan associations (13.6 percent). Mortgage companies, the Home Owners' Loan Corporation, title and trust companies, construction companies, and other sources accounted for the remaining 18 percent of the volume of mortgage loans reported for owner-occupied dwellings.

A separate inquiry was made to determine the value of various furnishings and facilities included in rents. Information was collected on items such as electricity, gas, water, heating, garage, and mechanical refrigeration, in 11 cities. The figures disclosed that approximately one-fourth of the gross apartment rental was due to inclusion of such items in the rent. In 1- and 2-family dwellings this item made up about one-tenth of the rent, notwithstanding that multifamily dwellings are of smaller average size.

In the accompanying table summary and individual-city data are given on the principal findings of the financial survey.

Value, Income, Ratio of Rent to Income, Mortgages, and Interest Rates on Dwellings, by Cities

City and geographic area	Average value of 1-family dwellings, Jan. 1, 1934 [1]		Average annual family income, 1933		Average ratio rent to income, 1933 [3] (percent)	Percent of properties mortgaged [4]		Average ratio of mortgage debt to value of property [5] (percent)		Interest rates [6] (percent)			
										Contract rate (weighted)		Effective rate (weighted)	
	Owner-occupied	Rented	Owner-occupants [2]	Tenants [2]		Owner-occupied	Rented	Owner-occupied	Rented	Owner-occupied	Rented	Owner-occupied	Rented
Total, 52 cities	$4,447	$3,142	$1,465	$1,082	24.2	58.3	42.8	55.6	60.4	6.18	6.25	6.54	6.76
New England	6,214	4,832	1,710	1,171	25.2	68.6	53.8	54.6	60.6	5.93	5.88	6.17	6.20
Portland, Maine	6,051	4,445	1,842	1,290	25.4	46.7	41.3	50.5	53.4	6.00	6.04	6.10	6.11
Worcester, Mass	6,642	6,133	1,907	1,221	24.9	83.6	69.3	67.1	69.3	5.64	5.47	5.71	5.76
Providence, R. I	5,903	4,706	1,606	1,124	25.5	63.2	50.2	49.4	58.7	6.06	6.00	6.45	6.40
Waterbury, Conn	8,001	----	2,073	1,223	24.0	81.1	----	60.0	----	5.90	5.93	5.84	6.06
Middle Atlantic	5,223	4,457	1,394	1,071	27.5	66.9	55.9	55.9	62.8	5.65	5.72	5.91	6.03
Binghamton, N. Y	6,163	----	2,019	1,408	23.4	45.3	----	45.9	----	5.80	6.35	6.18	6.18
Syracuse, N. Y	5,901	5,436	1,507	1,082	27.3	76.9	67.1	57.0	62.7	5.46	5.54	5.69	5.83
Trenton, N. J	4,200	3,135	1,174	902	30.3	68.8	39.8	58.4	59.7	5.92	5.77	6.03	6.29
Erie, Pa	4,576	3,786	1,080	924	28.6	49.7	36.5	57.7	64.5	5.94	5.95	6.36	6.48
East North Central	5,669	4,306	1,430	1,149	25.9	65.3	51.2	56.8	64.2	6.18	6.15	6.45	6.46
Cleveland, Ohio	6,249	5,464	1,391	1,138	27.2	67.0	53.2	57.2	67.7	6.14	6.09	6.42	6.35
Indianapolis, Ind	4,890	3,126	1,821	1,289	23.1	63.8	51.2	56.2	57.0	6.34	6.34	6.52	6.76
Peoria, Ill	4,405	3,087	1,454	1,131	24.9	54.0	40.3	50.4	52.5	6.56	6.39	6.88	6.76
Lansing, Mich	3,813	2,970	1,204	966	21.0	57.4	36.5	59.5	57.0	6.20	6.35	6.41	6.75
Kenosha, Wis	5,069	4,969	959	803	28.1	65.3	48.2	53.8	58.4	6.09	6.24	6.38	6.69
Racine, Wis	4,961	4,342	918	837	26.3	67.1	53.5	58.9	59.8	5.95	5.96	6.34	6.47
West North Central	3,662	2,713	1,449	1,141	24.5	51.5	39.4	52.0	55.3	6.09	6.08	6.54	6.72
Minneapolis, Minn	4,204	3,375	1,530	1,220	26.0	55.9	46.3	52.4	56.7	5.92	5.91	6.31	6.68
St. Paul, Minn	3,766	3,285	1,469	1,056	27.6	48.0	41.4	50.0	53.7	5.93	5.94	6.46	6.50
Des Moines, Iowa	3,157	2,486	1,455	1,174	24.2	49.5	35.4	53.2	52.2	5.91	6.18	6.48	6.64
St. Joseph, Mo	3,276	2,483	1,473	1,176	19.9	42.9	24.7	52.5	54.5	6.21	6.12	6.80	6.69
Springfield, Mo	2,651	1,940	1,162	899	20.2	50.1	25.4	52.9	48.2	7.04	7.00	7.51	7.58
Fargo, N. Dak	4,811	----	1,682	1,304	25.8	58.5	----	50.4	----	6.38	6.64	6.40	6.92
Sioux Falls, S. Dak	4,101	3,291	1,545	1,229	24.3	53.4	40.8	46.5	48.8	6.12	6.01	6.57	6.71
Lincoln, Nebr	3,548	2,524	1,404	1,153	23.2	48.2	36.5	53.6	63.3	6.22	6.14	6.52	6.66
Topeka, Kans	3,186	2,258	1,373	1,070	22.6	44.0	26.2	50.4	52.0	7.03	6.86	7.51	6.99
Wichita, Kans	2,722	2,066	1,271	1,035	19.3	53.5	38.8	56.8	57.4	6.48	6.34	7.11	7.23
South Atlantic	4,323	3,128	1,620	958	23.3	50.5	34.5	56.6	65.5	6.25	6.32	6.91	7.25
Hagerstown, Md	4,601	2,535	1,315	920	25.2	49.6	26.2	60.9	67.4	5.87	5.75	6.12	5.64
						40.7	34.2	59.4	62.6	5.97	6.00	6.72	6.83

South Atlantic	4,323	3,128	1,620	958	23.3	50.5	34.5	56.6	65.5	6.25	6.32	6.91	7.25
Hagerstown, Md	4,601	2,535	1,315	920	25.2	49.6	26.2	60.9	67.4	5.87	5.75	6.12	5.64
Richmond, Va	5,218	3,640	1,999	1,285	22.2	40.7	34.2	59.4	62.6	5.97	6.00	6.72	6.83
Wheeling, W. Va	3,768	3,519	1,073	925	24.4	35.3	21.9	49.4	51.1	5.93	6.05	6.39	6.15
Asheville, N. C	3,807	3,234	1,393	821	20.6	46.9	14.5	66.3	79.7	5.95	5.83	6.39	6.35
Greensboro, N. C	5,226	3,382	2,000	1,217	16.3	56.8	29.3	61.9	61.2	5.97	5.98	6.35	7.75
Charleston, S. C	5,023	2,723	1,927	734	24.0	32.9	23.6	50.3	51.9	6.71	6.42	7.12	6.87
Columbia, S. C	4,779	2,907	1,737	812	22.8	58.4	33.7	57.4	62.6	6.87	6.94	7.39	6.72
Atlanta, Ga	4,339	2,703	1,906	979	22.7	58.3	40.7	57.3	70.0	6.40	6.35	7.25	7.60
Jacksonville, Fla	3,499	----------	1,224	626	27.5	47.6	----------	52.2	----------	6.78	6.80	7.35	7.14
East South Central	3,213	2,566	1,275	778	20.3	52.4	22.5	59.4	51.1	6.59	6.39	7.09	7.17
Paducah, Ky	2,106	1,188	1,134	680	21.5	30.7	7.1	58.7	48.2	5.93	6.16	7.29	6.70
Birmingham, Ala	3,198	2,703	1,211	769	19.6	52.4	22.9	61.1	52.0	6.63	6.37	7.10	7.19
Jackson, Miss	4,462	----------	1,707	899	25.4	61.5	----------	50.4	----------	6.52	6.60	6.93	7.11
West South Central	3,643	2,488	1,647	1,128	21.8	53.4	37.4	55.4	56.7	6.99	7.07	7.45	7.50
Little Rock, Ark	3,230	1,794	1,502	940	20.3	43.8	23.9	62.9	62.2	6.26	6.32	6.88	7.34
Baton Rouge, La	3,806	----------	1,532	1,009	22.5	53.3	----------	45.0	----------	7.17	6.78	7.55	7.61
Oklahoma City, Okla	3,833	2,580	1,617	1,096	22.9	61.7	43.1	58.2	55.5	6.82	7.02	7.38	6.98
Austin, Tex	3,732	2,529	1,534	1,168	22.0	39.2	30.6	46.4	50.9	7.41	7.59	7.52	9.16
Dallas, Tex	3,695	2,796	1,712	1,233	22.4	53.3	39.6	53.5	56.7	7.22	7.21	7.63	7.76
Wichita Falls, Tex	2,933	1,970	1,650	1,048	14.7	41.4	21.2	66.3	72.4	7.22	7.12	7.48	8.02
Mountain	2,956	2,465	1,341	1,027	23.3	49.3	39.1	55.7	57.5	7.02	7.06	6.60	7.36
Butte, Mont	2,355	1,719	1,155	986	25.1	24.2	15.1	41.3	52.2	7.82	7.45	8.32	8.71
Boise, Idaho	3,147	----------	1,266	1,194	24.0	45.1	----------	43.2	----------	6.95	7.64	7.91	8.17
Casper, Wyo	2,594	----------	1,441	1,099	20.0	44.1	----------	56.9	----------	6.93	6.85	7.31	7.05
Pueblo, Colo	1,830	1,503	933	783	23.8	40.9	22.5	59.2	58.9	6.62	7.04	7.08	7.16
Phoenix, Ariz	4,143	3,368	1,590	1,114	21.8	55.6	43.6	56.3	53.3	7.31	7.39	7.60	7.94
Salt Lake City, Utah	3,224	2,677	1,417	1,094	23.7	54.0	42.9	58.0	59.8	6.97	6.80	5.83	6.97
Pacific	3,231	2,727	1,307	1,092	22.8	50.5	37.1	55.9	57.4	6.34	6.42	6.92	7.06
Seattle, Wash	3,043	2,587	1,278	1,125	22.7	49.2	36.4	54.7	57.2	6.25	6.26	6.95	6.79
Portland, Oreg	3,104	2,655	1,218	905	22.5	51.0	33.8	56.6	54.9	6.09	6.20	6.45	7.10
Sacramento, Calif	3,995	3,255	1,712	1,344	23.7	54.5	45.0	61.8	64.2	6.58	6.82	7.14	7.23
San Diego, Calif	3,568	2,872	1,371	1,192	23.1	50.6	38.3	54.4	57.6	6.79	6.88	7.48	7.66

[1] Totals for 52 cities and geographic areas weighted by total number of 1-family dwellings in each city by tenure.
[2] Totals for 52 cities and geographic areas weighted by total number owner-occupant families in each city.
[3] Totals for 52 cities and geographic areas weighted by total number of tenant families in each city.
[4] Totals for 52 cities and geographic areas weighted by total number of mortgaged properties in each city by tenure.
[5] Totals for 52 cities and geographic areas weighted by total value of mortgaged properties in each city by tenure.
[6] Totals for 52 cities and geographic areas weighted by total amount of first mortgage debt in each city by tenure.

LEAD POISONING IN 1936 AND EARLIER YEARS

By FREDERICK L. HOFFMAN, LL. D.[1]

STATISTICS for this and other countries are consistently indicative of a marked decline in the occurrence of fatal lead poisoning. This decline is one of the most encouraging signs of progress in the sanitary administration of modern industry and in public health generally. For foreign countries the returns are not always precise, because of their varying practices of including or excluding deaths from nonindustrial sources. It would be highly desirable to have uniformity of procedure in recording occupational deaths from lead poisoning separately, as is the practice in Great Britain. For the United States the returns include both occupational and nonoccupational deaths from lead poisoning; in other words, they include deaths from nonindustrial causes, such as contaminated water supplies, the poisoning of children by lead-painted toys, and other sources.

The incidence of the fatal form of lead poisoning in this country declined from 2.5 deaths per million of population in 1900–1904 to 1.0 death per million in 1936, or 60 percent. In England and Wales the occupational death rate from lead poisoning declined from 2.5 per million in 1911–15 to 0.6 in 1936, or 76.0 percent. In Scotland the rate declined from 0.6 in 1911–15 to 0.2 in 1936, or 66.7 percent. Similar downward trends are shown for most of the other countries included in the present review.

During 1935 there were 130 deaths from lead poisoning in the United States, 36 of which were of painters, the remainder being scattered among a wide range of occupations, as well as among women and among boys and girls under 18 years of age. The decline in industrial lead poisoning is largely the result of sanitary improvements in factory conditions, which during the last 20 years have continued on a progressive scale from year to year. Another factor is the improved economic condition of the workmen, who receive higher wages, work shorter hours, and represent a decidedly better type of physique than during earlier years. Chronic intoxication, which was once common

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among lead workers, has disappeared. Another factor of importance is the introduction of workmen's compensation, which places the financial responsibility for the occurrence of lead poisoning on the employers in the lead-using industries. Unfortunately, no uniform statistics of workmen's compensation for lead poisoning are available.

The physical and clinical statistics of lead workers are indicative of thoroughly healthy and physically sound bodies of the workers, whose condition has been materially improved by more widespread practices of personal hygiene and bodily cleanliness, and the use of improved respirators in dust-exposing occupations. The increasing practice of medical supervision of employees and their periodical examination is proving its value in other directions, as the early recognition of lead absorption prevents the development of toxic conditions and avoids the risk of death or permanent disability.

It is regrettable that there are no statistics of lead absorption on a large scale showing the number of nonfatal cases of lead poisoning in industry, corresponding to the returns of the factory inspector of Great Britain. In that country, during the 5 years 1931–35 there were 884 cases reported under the Factory Acts, of which 105, or 11.9 percent, terminated fatally. It would be mere blind conjecture to apply this ratio to our American deaths from lead poisoning, in the absence of any useful data on the probable number of cases in American industry at the present time.

Finally, it may be pointed out that there has been considerable progress in the diagnosis of lead poisoning in both industrial and nonindustrial cases, and that treatment is making considerable progress, with the result that the incidence of fatal forms of lead poisoning is now decidedly less common than in former years.

Fatal lead poisoning occurs not only in the lead-using industries but also in the general population, though only to a negligible degree in the latter case. The situation is somewhat confused by the varying practices of local authorities in reporting the occurrence of fatal lead poisoning in conformity to the international classification of causes of death, which, if strictly complied with, records only deaths from occupational lead poisoning while disregarding deaths occurring in the population at large from nonoccupational sources. The practice varies for different countries, although general statistics, as a rule, include both types of the disease, and in most of the discussion following it is assumed that the term includes all cases of lead poisoning, whether of industrial or nonindustrial origin. In a special and extended inquiry for different countries and localities no other procedure is feasible at the present time.

The following discussion is divided into four separate sections: (1) Statistics of occupational and nonoccupational lead poisoning in the United States, as derived from the general mortality returns;

(2) statistics of cases of lead poisoning and deaths resulting from the disease, according to workmen's compensation practices and other sources of information utilized for the present purpose; (3) statistics for foreign countries, limited to those countries for which the returns are conveniently available; and (4) physical and clinical statistics of lead workers.

Lead Poisoning in the United States

CASES AMONG GENERAL POPULATION

Statistics for the United States registration area are available since 1900, when the area comprehended 40.5 percent of the total population. Since 1933 the registration area has included the entire population. During the 37 years 1900 to 1936, the rate per million for lead-poisoning deaths has varied from a maximum of 3.1 in 1903 to a minimum of 0.6 in 1932. By quinquennial periods the fluctuation in the rate has been as follows:

TABLE 1.—*Deaths From Lead Poisoning in United States Registration Area, 1900 to 1936, by 5-Year Periods*

Period	Registration area				Estimated number of lead-poisoning deaths in United States
	Aggregate population included		Total lead-poisoning deaths		
	Number	Percent of total population	Number	Rate per million	
1900–1904	160,212,631	40.4	407	2.5	992
1905–9	216,713,041	50.2	457	2.1	918
1910–14	302,388,727	64.2	740	2.4	1,141
1915–19	379,929,059	74.8	763	2.0	1,022
1920–24	468,499,432	86.0	682	1.5	824
1925–29	546,643,899	93.2	688	1.3	768
1930–34	610,422,900	97.8	525	.9	562
1935	127,521,000	100.0	130	1.0	130
1936 [1]	128,429,000	100.0	131	1.0	131

[1] According to preliminary statistics received from the Bureau of Census, the number of deaths from lead poisoning in Continental United States in 1936 was 131. For certain States the deaths were as follows: California, 9; Florida, 4; Illinois, 9; Indiana, 4; Maryland, 11; Massachusetts, 7; Michigan, 6; Missouri, 4; New Jersey, 8; New York, 19; Ohio, 6; and Pennsylvania, 11. There were no deaths reported in Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Delaware, District of Columbia, Idaho, Louisiana, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming. In the remainder of the States the number of lead-poisoning deaths was from 1 to 3 in each State.

The preceding table shows that the death rate from lead poisoning in the United States has declined from 2.5 per million in 1900–1904 to 0.9 in 1930–34 and 1.0 in 1936. Statistics of lead poisoning for the United States include both occupational and nonoccupational deaths from the disease.

There were 130 deaths from lead poisoning in the United States in 1935; these included 36 painters, 6 paint workers, 10 laborers, 7 persons in lead-using industries, 8 farmers, 5 miners, 3 metal workers, 4 printers, 2 electric-storage-battery workers, 1 rubber worker, 1 worker in the automobile industry, and 13 whose occupations were unknown or miscellaneous. Among the nonoccupational deaths there were 6 women, and 14 girls and 14 boys under 18 years of age, a total

of 34, leaving 96 deaths from lead poisoning strictly chargeable to industry.

The average age at death in the lead-poisoning cases in 1935 was 42.5 years, the ages ranging from 1 to 90. The average age for painters was 58.9 years and for lead workers, 61.8 years. During the 11 years 1925–35, there were 1,343 deaths from lead poisoning in the United States registration area, at an average age of 48.5 years. The average age of 584 painters who died from this cause during this period was 53.9 years, and for 51 lead workers, 51.8 years. The number of deaths clearly nonoccupational during this period was 195, leaving 1,148 in the strictly occupational group, or 85.5 percent of the total. During this period there were 47 deaths of women from lead poisoning, at an average age of 49.7 years. These deaths in most cases were due to contaminated water supplies and in a few other cases, in all probability, to painting at home. There were 36 deaths of farmers, at an average age of 55.5 years, most of which were probably caused by painting at home, but some also by contaminated water supplies. There were 56 deaths of boys under 18 years of age, 22 of whom were 1 year of age, 24 were 2 years, 6 were 3 years, 1 was 5 years, 1 was 6 years, and 2 were 17 years of age; the average age for the group was 2.4 years. There were also 56 deaths of girls under 18, 17 of whom were 1 year of age, 22 were 2 years, 7 were 3 years, 3 were 4 years, 1 was 5 years, 4 were 6 years, 1 was 10 years, and 1 was 16 years; the average age for the group was 2.7 years. Most of the deaths of the little children were due to sucking paint on lead-painted toys, furniture, walls, or banisters.

The number and rate of deaths from lead poisoning in four leading industrial States, by 5-year periods, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Fatal Cases of Lead Poisoning in Specified States, by 5-Year Periods*

Period	Aggregate population	Total deaths		Period	Aggregate population	Total deaths	
		Number	Rate per million			Number	Rate per million
New York State:				Pennsylvania:			
1921–25	54,153,217	71	1.3	1925–29	46,934,224	61	1.3
1926–30	58,766,394	72	1.2	1930–34	49,179,000	42	.9
1931–35	65,894,610	55	.8	1935–36	20,187,000	22	1.1
1936	13,345,226	15	1.1	Massachusetts:			
New Jersey:				1901–5	14,654,094	30	2.0
1915–20	18,007,290	48	2.7	1906–10	16,175,209	30	1.9
1921–25	17,107,645	36	2.1	1911–15	17,873,184	38	2.1
1926–30	19,321,224	31	1.6	1916–20	19,212,914	43	2.2
1931–35	20,968,485	28	1.3	1921–25	19,938,649	46	2.3
1936	4,328,000	7	1.6	1926–30	21,437,990	44	2.1
				1931–35	21,581,290	29	1.3
				1936	4,425,000	7	1.6

A tabulation of deaths from lead poisoning in 18 American cities in which the lead-using industries are more or less concentrated gives the following results: In the aggregate there were 179 deaths during

the period 1929–36, of which 30 occurred in New York City, 29 in Baltimore, 28 in Philadelphia, 22 in Boston, 16 in Chicago, 15 in Cleveland, and 10 in Providence. By single years the number of lead poisoning deaths in these cities has been as follows: 1929, 18; 1930, 20; 1931, 24; 1932, 17; 1933, 17; 1934, 24; 1935, 26; 1936, 33.

The Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. has furnished returns of deaths from lead poisoning in the experience of the industrial department of that company for the period 1914–36. According to these returns the death rate from lead poisoning of these policy holders declined from 3.0 per million in 1914–18 to 2.3 in 1919–23, 1.6 in 1924–28, and 1.1 in 1929–33. It was 1.0 in 1934, 1.4 in 1935, and 1.7 in 1936. For the entire period the rate was 1.8 per million exposed to risk, ages 1 year and over, the highest rate, or 4.2, having been reached in 1914, and the lowest, or 0.7, in 1930. In the aggregate there were 605 deaths in the experience of the company during the period under review.

Of interest in connection with the foregoing are the statistics of the Massachusetts General Hospital for the period 1918–36, differentiating acute and chronic cases. By 5-year periods the figures are as follows:

TABLE 3.—*Lead Poisoning at Massachusetts General Hospital, 1918 to 1936, by 5-Year Periods*

Period	Total cases	Acute cases	Chronic cases
1918–22	65	11	54
1923–27	116	14	102
1928–32	37	10	27
1933–36	19	5	14

The statistics for the United States Navy, for the period 1913–35, differentiating acute and chronic cases, show a remarkable decline for both types of lead poisoning—from 300 cases in 1913–17 to 56 cases in 1928–32 and 35 cases in 1933–35. The details by 5-year periods are given in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Lead Poisoning in the United States Navy, 1913 to 1935, by 5-Year Periods*

Period	Average strength of Navy	Acute cases		Chronic cases	
		Total number	Number of deaths	Total number	Number of deaths
1913–17	516,016	169	----------	131	----------
1918–22	1,214,326	45	----------	33	----------
1923–27	580,308	85	1	33	----------
1928–32	574,372	42	----------	14	----------
1933–35	328,283	28	----------	7	----------

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION EXPERIENCE

Workmen's compensation statistics for lead poisoning are especially interesting, in that they afford a view into the financial aspects of the problem. As a result of new laws passed in 1937, there are now 21 States which compensate for occupational diseases, as compared with 16 a year ago. These States are California, Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota,

Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. Coverage for occupational diseases is also extended to employees under the workmen's compensation laws of the District of Columbia, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Philippine Islands, and to employees covered by the Federal Employees' Compensation Act and the Longshoremen's and Harbor Workers' Act. Of the 21 States enumerated above, all but Kentucky and West Virginia compensate for lead poisoning. Unfortunately, for only a few of these States are statistics available which are useful for the present purpose. The most important of these are for the State of New York, 1935–36, yielding the results shown in the following table:

TABLE 5.—*Workmen's Compensation for Lead Poisoning in New York State, 1935 and 1936*

Type of disability	1935			1936		
	Total cases	Weeks of compensation	Amount of compensation	Total cases	Weeks of compensation	Amount of compensation
All types of disability	99	8,414	$141,379	69	6,390	$78,239
Death or permanent total disability	[1] 3	3,000	[2] 37,517	3	3,000	20,817
Permanent partial disability	3	2,321	53,272	3	1,411	21,471
Temporary disability	93	3,093	50,590	63	1,979	35,951

[1] Includes 1 case of permanent total disability.
[2] Present value of compensation awarded.

In the State of Ohio the number of cases reported under the workmen's compensation act since 1928 and amount paid as compensation were as follows:

	Cases		*Cases*		*Cases*
1928	180	1931	114	1934	162
1929	183	1932	148	1935	102
1930	134	1933	134	1936	112

As the above statement shows, the total number of cases of lead poisoning in Ohio during the 9 years, 1928–36, was 1,269. Of these, 77 terminated fatally, equivalent to a rate of 1.3 per million of population. The statement below lists the lead-poisoning cases in Ohio in 1935 and 1936, classified according to the principal occupation of the worker:

	1935	*1936*
Painters	16	30
Foundry workers	9	23
Storage-battery factory workers	23	18
Sanitary-ware enamelers	13	12
Lead workers	7	8
Printers, electrotypers, and lithographers	5	5
Potters (clay workers)	6	2
Miscellaneous occupations	23	14
Total	102	112

In the State of New Jersey, 1929–35, the number of cases of lead poisoning and amount paid as compensation were as follows:

TABLE 6.—*Cases of Lead Poisoning and Compensation Paid in New Jersey, 1929 to 1935*

Year	Cases of lead poisoning					Compensation paid			
	Total	Deaths	Permanent total disability	Permanent partial disability	Temporary disability	Total	Death or permanent total disability	Permanent partial disability	Temporary disability
Total	962	14	6	502	440	$677,468	$53,790	$477,449	$54,739
1929	124	4	2	40	78	91,490			
1930	169	2	1	61	105	105,593	11,829	74,963	18,801
1931	227	3	1	152	71	217,814	16,946	188,900	11,968
1932	180	1	2	121	56	126,838	17,223	99,790	9,825
1933	128	1		67	60	60,121	1,500	51,124	7,497
1934	70	1		40	29	49,358	1,600	44,933	2,825
1935	64	2		21	41	26,254	4,692	17,739	3,823

In addition to compensation awarded, there were 242 cases in New Jersey in the period covered by the above table in which medical costs, to the amount of $35,295, were incurred. The maximum amount paid in any of these years on account of medical costs—$15,981—was reached in 1930. The proportion of compensation to medical costs indicates a decided decline in lead poisoning during recent years.

The total number of days lost (weighted) during this period was 429,435, of which 84,000 were for permanent total disability, 250,044 for permanent partial disability, and 23,109 for temporary disability.

According to information furnished by the Connecticut Bureau of Occupational Diseases, there were in that State 96 cases of lead poisoning during the 5-year period, 1931–36, as shown in table 7:

TABLE 7.—*Lead Poisoning in Connecticut, 1931–32 to 1935–36*

Year	Total cases	Cases reported by physicians	Compensated cases
Total	96	42	54
1931–32	1	1	
1932–33	26	18	8
1933–34	28	12	16
1934–35	27	8	19
1935–36	14	3	11

In Wisconsin the number of lead-poisoning cases for which compensation is paid is comparatively small. In 1934, the sum of $8,380 was paid in compensation for 13 cases of temporary disability and 1 case of permanent partial disability resulting from this cause. In 1935, $1,259 was paid in compensation for 13 cases of temporary disability. There were no compensated cases of death or permanent total disa-

bility in either year. The total number of days lost on account of lead poisoning during these 2 years was 2,287—1,837 in 1934 and only 450 in 1935.

No satisfactory compensation data are available for the State of Massachusetts. The number of cases of lead poisoning reported to the State Department of Labor during the 5 years 1931–35 was 175, with 3 deaths, equivalent to a rate of 0.1 per million of population.

International Statistics of Lead Poisoning

The data for Canada for the period 1931–35 are suggestive of a stationary condition in the frequency of lead poisoning. During 1936 there was a marked increase in the rate, or from an average of 0.8 per million to 1.6, based on 18 deaths for the year. The rates per million of population for the 5-year periods are shown in the following table:

TABLE 8.—*Fatalities From Lead Poisoning in Canada, 1921 to 1936, by 5-Year Periods*

Period	Aggregate population	Total deaths	
		Number	Rate per million
1921–25	32,833,654	25	0.8
1926–30	49,096,000	37	.8
1931–35	53,277,000	44	.8
1936	11,014,000	18	1.6

By Provinces the deaths from lead poisoning in Canada for 1936 were distributed as follows: Ontario, 11; Quebec, 5; Nova Scotia, 1; British Columbia, 1; and no deaths in Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta.

For England and Wales data are available since 1911, obtained from the reports of the Registrar General. These data, amplified by statistics on lead poisoning under the Factory Acts, derived from the annual reports of the chief inspector of factories, are shown in table 9.

TABLE 9.—*Cases of Lead Poisoning in England and Wales, by 5-Year Periods*

Period	Aggregate population	Fatalities among general population				Cases under Factory Acts	
		Occupational		Nonoccupational			
		Number	Rate per million	Number	Rate per million	Total	Fatalities
1911–15	181,287,000	444	2.5	46	0.25	2,617	157
1916–20	175,537,000	251	1.4	14	.08	1,259	102
1921–25	192,084,000	241	1.3	13	.07	1,626	119
1926–30	197,252,000	231	1.2	11	.06	1,424	169
1931–35	201,506,000	148	.7	13	.06	884	105
1936	40,600,000	23	.6	4	.10	163	13

The above statistics do not include cases of lead poisoning in house painters and plumbers not employed under the acts. These have been included in the total number of cases given as 1,990 during the first

5-year period, 1,595 during the second, and 914 during the third. The number of deaths in this group was 201 in 1921–25, 206 in 1926–30, and 115 in 1931–35, while the respective fatality percentages were 10.1, 12.9, and 12.6. Of interest in connection with the foregoing is the following tabulation of cases of lead poisoning reported in the United Kingdom, by industrial groups. These statistics have been derived from the annual report of the chief inspector of factories for 1935, amplified by a communication from Dr. Bridges, chief medical inspector of factories, dated February 1, 1937.

TABLE 10.—*Lead Poisoning in the United Kingdom, 1934 to 1936*

Industrial group	All reported cases			Deaths		
	1934	1935	1936	1934	1935	1936
All groups	198	168	163	25	17	13
Smelting of metals	20	17	19	1		1
Plumbing and soldering	6	3	3	1	1	
Shipbreaking	24	10	11			
Printing	3	4	3		1	
Tinning of metals	1					
Other contact with molten lead	10	11	5			
White and red lead works	7	7	5			1
Pottery	26	18	18	8	7	1
Vitreous enameling	8	1	5			
Electric-accumulator works	12	10	15			
Paint and color works	19	21	19	1		
Coach and car painting	8	5	7	1	1	
Shipbuilding	1	3	3	1		
Paint used in other industries	1	2	4	1		1
Other industries	11	24	19	1		2
Painting of buildings	41	32	27	10	7	7

The annual report of the chief inspector of factories and workshops of the United Kingdom is an invaluable source of information regarding lead poisoning in industry, disclosing a wealth of useful information not otherwise obtainable. It is a model of its kind, and the method adopted should be followed by other countries.

The fatalities from lead poisoning, by 5-year periods, are shown for specified countries in table 11. Considerable variation in the mortality rate is evident here, but, as already indicated, the data are not entirely comparable because of the varying practice in the different countries with regard to the inclusion or exclusion of nonoccupational fatalities. All of the countries, however, exhibit a marked decline in the relative frequency of lead poisoning.

As the table indicates, lead poisoning is comparatively rare in the Irish Free State and the Netherlands. The statistics are not entirely satisfactory for certain years, since they include all forms of mineral poison under No. 77 of the international classification of the causes of death, but deaths from mineral poisoning other than lead are very infrequent. On the whole, the statistics can be relied upon as fairly representative of the whole problem. In Denmark the deaths from lead poisoning are also rare, the rate having been 0.3 per million for

the period 1931–35, based on 5 deaths. However, during the single year 1936 there were also 5 deaths from this cause, equivalent to a rate of 1.3 per million.

TABLE 11.—*Deaths and Death Rate From Lead Poisoning in Specified Countries, by 5-Year Periods*

Country and period	Aggregate population	Total deaths		Country and period	Aggregate population	Total deaths	
		Number	Rate per million			Number	Rate per million
Scotland:				Netherlands:			
1911–15	23,738,306	15	0.6	1921–25	35,732,943	[1] 6	0.2
1916–20	24,101,793	16	.7	1926–30	38,427,737	[1] 3	.1
1921–25	24,462,722	13	.5	1931–34	32,762,152	[1] 3	.1
1926–30	24,411,691	5	.2	Australia:			
1931–35	24,524,490	8	.3	1926–30	31,408,493	100	3.2
1936	4,966,300	1	.2	1931–35	33,138,325	82	2.5
Irish Free State:				1936	6,777,744	10	1.5
1923–25	9,004,000	[1] 9	1.0	Victoria	1,847,841		
1926–30	14,767,000	[1] 11	.7	New South Wales	2,667,839	2	.8
1931–35	14,208,000	[1] 8	.5	Queensland	987,589	7	7.2
Switzerland:				South Australia	587,549	1	1.7
1926–30	19,948,900	23	1.2	Western Australia	450,036	0	0
1931–35	20,610,900	19	.9				
Italy:							
1928–31	163,345,671	125	.8				
1932–35	169,279,873	123	.7				

[1] Included under No. 77 (mineral poisoning) of the international classification of the causes of death.

The death rate from lead poisoning in Australia is relatively high compared with other countries, but there was a gratifying decline during the last 5 years shown in table 11. Of the 100 deaths during the first 5 years, 85 were males and 15 were females, while during the second 5 years, of the 82 deaths, 58 were males and 24 were females. The Australian situation is interesting, and many of the deaths are probably of nonindustrial origin, but no definite information is available. Of the 82 deaths during the period 1931–35, 10 were of persons under 15 years of age and 29 were persons 15 to 29 years. Because of the high concentration of deaths in Queensland, data, by sex, are shown for that State for the 2 latest 5-year periods and for 1936, in table 12.

TABLE 12.—*Lead Poisoning in Queensland, Australia, 1926 to 1936, by 5-Year Periods*

Period	Aggregate population	Total deaths		Males			Females		
					Deaths			Deaths	
		Number	Rate per million	Aggregate population	Number	Rate per million	Aggregate population	Number	Rate per million
1926–30	4,420,417	40	9.0	2,323,413	27	11.6	2,097,004	13	6.2
1931–35	4,727,636	47	9.9	2,479,421	25	10.1	2,248,215	22	9.8
1936	978,589	7	7.2	512,652	3	5.9	465,937	4	8.6

The situation in Queensland has attracted much attention because of the alleged exceptional frequency of the disease in young children contracted by sucking painted surfaces, toys, etc. It is also alleged that contaminated water supplies play an important part at the present time.

For the Dominion of New Zealand lead-poisoning returns are reported under No. 77 of the international classification, for the 7 years, 1929–35. According to these returns there were 9 deaths during this period, all males, equivalent to a rate of 0.9 per million of population.

For Germany the only data available are the workmen's compensation statistics of lead poisoning for the period 1926–34, based on information derived from the German Statistical Year Book and from correspondence with the German Statistical Office. Table 13 gives the total number of cases reported and the total cases compensated, as well as the number of deaths.

TABLE 13.—*Lead Poisoning in Germany, 1926 to 1934, by Specified Periods*

Period	Total cases reported	Total cases compensated		Deaths	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent of compensated cases
1926–30	16,170	1,717	10.6	62	3.6
1931–34	5,630	787	14.0	39	5.0

Physical and Clinical Statistics of Lead Workers

To the foregoing discussion of the vital statistics of lead poisoning, some clinical and physical statistics of employees in lead-using industries are added, based on examinations made during the last 2 years. The statistics represent examinations in 9 different plants in Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Chicago, Atlanta, Staten Island, and Oakland, Calif. In the aggregate there were 1,623 employees, of whom 62.9 percent were born in the United States, 8.1 percent in Poland, 4.6 percent in Italy, 3.0 percent in Spain, and the remainder, or 21.4 percent, in 27 different countries.

The average age of 1,621 employees was 38.6 years, the ages ranging from 16 to 71. The largest group of employees were 24 years of age. Of the total, 74.6 percent were married, widowed, or divorced, while 25.4 percent were single. For 1,594 employees the average duration of employment was 88.2 months, or 7.5 years. The range in duration of employment was from 1 day to 509 months (42.4 years).

Table 14 shows the occupational distribution and certain data regarding the workers' previous disease history. The number of workers for whom data were obtained on each point is shown in parentheses.

TABLE 14.—*Occupational Distribution and Disease and Injury Experience of Workers in the Lead Industry*

Department, occupation, and number reporting	Employees reporting
Occupational distribution (1,439):	*Number*
White-lead mill	345
Laborers	54
Packers	47
Sprinklers	31
Mixers	19
Pulp-machine operators	18
Roll operators	18
Millwrights	12
Operators, not specified	12
Foremen	12
Cylinder cleaners	11
Washroom workers	11
Dryer operators	10
Miscellaneous occupations	90
Oxide department	233
Furnacemen	60
Oxide handlers	24
Packers	21
Dumping fumes	19
Pig-lead handlers	17
Operators, not specified	17
Laborers	16
Foremen	11
Miscellaneous occupations	48
Oil mill	217
Pressmen	108
Laborers	38
Floormen	16
Coopers	10
Miscellaneous occupations	45
Mechanical department	198
Mechanics	60
Machinists	27
Repairmen	25
Carpenters	17
Electricians	17
Miscellaneous occupations	52
Yard	178
Drawing-lead workers	48
Setting-lead workers	41
Laborers	40
Pig-lead handlers	15
Crane operators	13
Miscellaneous occupations	21
Shipping and warehouse departments	162
Laborers	44
Drivers and chauffeurs	37
Dock laborers	36
Shipping laborers	28
Miscellaneous occupations	17
Occupational distribution—Continued.	*Number*
Power house	57
Firemen	29
Engineers	23
Laborers	5
Oil and color department	26
Laborers	8
Fillers	4
Grinders	4
Mixers	3
Miscellaneous occupations	7
Metal department	23
Laborers	14
Type pressmen	3
Sheet-lead operators	2
Sheet-metal operators	2
Foreman	1
Metal mixers	1
Exposure to lead dust or fumes (1,608):	*Percent*
Exposed	57.8
Not exposed	42.2
Former employment (1,612):	
In lead-using industries	11.4
Not in lead-using industries	88.6
Previous history of lead poisoning (1,617):	
None	96.5
Lead poisoning	3.5
Previous other diseases (1,606):	*Number*
Pneumonia	23
Rheumatism	23
Appendicitis	19
Scarlet fever	12
Diabetes	2
Tuberculosis	2
Nephritis	3
Typhoid fever	9
Other	83
None	1,430
Previous injuries or defects (1,602):	
Scars	113
Fractures	49
Fingers injured	35
Fingers missing	18
Abnormal tonsils	8
Leg injuries	8
Toes missing	7
Miscellaneous defects	69
None	1,295

Certain other clinical data are given in table 15.

TABLE 15.—*Clinical Data on Lead Workers*

Item and number reporting	Range	Average	Largest group
Height (1,614) inches	52.5– 78.0	67.9	68.0
Pulse rate (1,424)	40.0– 140.0	78.6	72.0
Systolic blood pressure (1,462)	86.0– 234.0	129.6	120.0
Diastolic blood pressure (1,462)	30.0– 145.0	82.2	----------
Body temperatures (832) degrees	94.0– 101.0	98.4	----------
Specific gravity (1,027)	1,002.0–1,040.0	1,021.0	----------
Hemoglobin (868) percent	50.0– 140.0	83.7	----------
Chest inspiration (596) inches	31.0– 55.0	38.0	----------
Chest expiration (596) do	29.5– 53.3	36.0	----------

Of 1,494 employees, 221 or 14.8 percent had shown a gain in weight, 143 or 9.6 percent a loss, while in 1,130 or 75.6 percent the weight had remained stationary. The average weight of 1,613 employees was 158 pounds, the weight ranging from 100 pounds in 1 case to 284 pounds in another. The maximum group, 43, had a weight of 149 pounds, while the number of persons weighing 200 pounds or more was 46.

The condition of the mouth for 1,607 employees was reported clean in 1,054, or 65.6 percent, while for 300 pyorrhea was reported. In 76 the condition of the mouth was poor, 67 fair, 31 septic, 25 abnormal tonsils, 24 bad, 23 shrunken, and 3 cleft palate. Of 1,273 employees, 74 or 5.8 percent showed a lead line on the gums. The condition of the tongue in 1,596 employees was clean in 1,349 or 84.5 percent, and coated, fissured, or beefy in the remaining 247. The condition of the teeth in 1,603 employees was clean in 327 or 20.4 percent, satisfactory in 324 or 20.2 percent, fair in 372 or 23.2 percent, poor in 90 or 5.6 percent, and bad in 249 or 15.5 percent. Artificial teeth were used by 148 or 9.3 percent.

The condition of the veins in 1,604 employees was indicated as normal in 1,308 or 81.6 percent and fair in 169 or 10.5 percent. Varicose veins were reported for 99, enlarged veins for 19, arteriosclerosis for 8, and relaxed veins for 1, a total of 7.9 percent.

The condition of the heart in 1,615 employees was reported as normal in 1,457 or 90.2 percent. In the remainder, or 9.8 percent, the condition was reported irregular in 45, murmurs in 90, both irregular and murmurs in 8, cardiodegeneration in 5, cardiovascular disease in 2, flabby muscle in 2, poor in 2, and enlarged in 5.

The nervous system in 1,619 employees was reported as normal in 1,558 or 96.2 percent. Neuritis was observed in 24, tremors in 11, poor reflex in 11, a fair condition in 9, paresthesia in 2, nervousness in 2, and headache in 2.

The condition of the digestive system was normal in 1,564 cases, or 96.5 percent of the 1,620 for whom information on this point was obtained. Constipation was observed in 2.2 percent, hemorrhoids in 0.5 percent, a fair condition in 0.4 percent, gall-bladder trouble in 0.1 percent, and miscellaneous conditions in 0.3 percent.

Of 1,617 employees, no indication of hernia was observed in 1,384 or 85.6 percent. Right inguinal hernia was observed in 15 cases, left inguinal in 13, double inguinal in 5, not specified inguinal in 5, bilateral in 1, and others not specified in 15, a total of 3.3 percent. Varicocele was observed in 30 cases and hydrocele in 5, impulse in 124, large rings in 11, enlarged testes in 2, and miscellaneous conditions in 7.

The urinary condition of 877 employees was found to be satisfactory in 781 or 89.0 percent. Nycturia was observed in 92 cases or

10.5 percent, nephritis in 2 cases, and miscellaneous conditions in 3 cases. Chemical analysis of the urine of 1,209 employees revealed that sugar was present in 167 or 13.8 percent, while of 1,215 employees albumen was present in 76 or 6.3 percent.

Anemia was observed in 75, or 9.6 percent of 779 employees, and was not present in 704, or 90.4 percent.

The condition of the skin in 1,556 employees was reported negative in 1,345 or 86.4 percent. The complexion was ruddy in 118 or 7.6 percent, while miscellaneous conditions of minor importance were observed in the remainder.

Of 1,563 employees, 889 or 56.9 percent used respirators and 674 or 43.1 did not use them. The types of respirators used were Pulmosan 30.4 percent, Cover's 30.2 percent, Dustite 20.3 percent, Willson 15.7 percent, Diamond Disk 3.2 percent, and Approved 0.2 percent. Of 1,538 employees, 888 or 57.7 used gloves and 650 or 42.3 percent did not.

The height, weight, and circulatory conditions of the majority of those examined are shown in table 16, by age groups.

TABLE 16.—*Height, Weight, and Circulatory Conditions of Lead Workers, by Age Groups*

Age	Average height		Average weight		Relative weight		Average pulse		Systolic blood pressure		Diastolic blood pressure	
	Number reporting	Inches	Number reporting	Pounds	Number reporting	Average pounds per inch	Number reporting	Beats	Number reporting	Average mm.	Number reporting	Average mm.
Total	1,614	67.90	1,613	158.0	1,612	2.33	1,424	78.6	1,462	129.6	1,462	82.2
Under 30 years	445	69.02	444	157.2	444	2.27	406	80.7	414	124.6	414	78.3
30–39 years	442	67.85	440	157.8	441	2.32	385	79.2	409	125.3	409	81.1
40–49 years	397	67.39	398	161.1	397	2.39	342	76.8	341	130.5	341	83.5
50 years and over	328	67.05	329	156.1	328	2.32	289	77.1	296	141.4	296	87.8
Not specified	2	66.13	2	136.0	2	2.06	2	80.0	2	124.0	2	86.0

INTERNATIONAL COMPARISONS OF INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENT STATISTICS [1]

STATISTICS of workmen's accidents necessarily are based upon the provisions of the workmen's compensation laws, no matter whether the aim of the statistics is to prepare data on the frequency of accidents, on the indemnity of insured accidents, or on the prevention of accidents. And because these laws differ extensively there is a wide variation in the nature and quality of industrial accident statistics, ranging from the very best to the most elementary. Even in countries where there are similar laws, many variations are found therein; for example, they may not include identical professions, or the same categories of workers.

[1] Extracts from a paper by Dr. Alfred Manes, professor of insurance, School of Business Administration, Indiana University, at a meeting of Federal accident statisticians in October 1937.

It is difficult to define a workman's accident exactly, for this term may have many different meanings, depending entirely upon the definitions as stated in the laws of the different countries. Further influence upon its definition is exercised by the courts through their decisions and by physicians in their diagnoses.

Various international and world-wide congresses have considered the problem of a standard international basis for industrial accident statistics. Among the members of these bodies were statisticians and actuaries, hygienists, demographers, technicians, and officials of the International Labor Office. All of the congresses have promoted some phase of the question and this has been more or less valuable to the expert. The Eleventh International Congress of Actuaries, which met in Paris in the summer of 1937, probably brought about the best understanding of actual facts as they are today. In view of the great variations in legal provisions already mentioned, it is not surprising that the Paris congress was also unsuccessful in reaching the much-desired goal of statistical uniformity. In fact, it may be stated that it is the opinion of all specialists who have given their attention to the question that it is generally impossible to make use of international material. However, in spite of the negative result of all these efforts from an international point of view, there has come a better understanding regarding the very narrow and short-lived usefulness of statistical accident data within a nation, and it is better to know the limitations of such data than to proceed, ignorant of them, to make mistakes by using figures which are not actuarially sound and which may result in miscalculations in premiums and reserves.

Proof of the limitations in existing statistics may be found in the material of the Swiss Accident Insurance Institution. One is the fact that the accident risk is affected by the time factor. Years of depression show much higher figures than normal years. Furthermore, the transference to other localities of statistical data relating to specific localities can lead to immense errors. There is perhaps no better proof of the existence of regional differences in the accident risk than the fact that in one and the same country, with the same law, the same interpretation of law, and the same insurance practice, the various regions of the country may produce entirely different accident statistics. Thus, an increase in the building industry in Switzerland during the years 1929, 1930, and 1931 resulted in the following significant picture: Expenses for cures, including payment until complete convalescence and payment for working ability lost, amounted to the following percentage of wages—Entire Switzerland, 21.3; Canton A, 15.3; Canton B, 31.5.

The Swiss representative to the Paris conference made another very instructive comparison between two countries which seem completely comparable—the Netherlands and Switzerland. The legal require-

ments of the insurance system covering industrial accidents are very similar in the two countries and the few deviations which do exist are negligible. A comparison of the insurance costs of both countries for the years 1932 to 1934, however, shows the following differences:

Net Cost of Insurance for Industrial Accidents in Netherlands and Switzerland, 1932–34

Industry	Net costs (in percentage of wages)	
	Netherlands	Switzerland
Shoe manufacture	3.9	6.1
Paper manufacture	5.1	10.3
Mills	9.3	23.3
Breweries	9.7	18.7
Building	19.7	35.6
Generation and distribution of electricity	7.0	23.6

In discussing the reasons for such an astounding contrast of statistical data, the representative from the Netherlands pointed out that the importance of medical science cannot be overestimated. The Netherlands seems to have a most efficient medical service and this may be the reason that the time of treatment in case of an accident is comparatively short. Ninety-five percent of all workmen's accidents there require less than 6 weeks of medical attention before the worker is able to return to work. Such a favorable result is probably due to the fact that in the Netherlands all accidents, even the least serious, are inspected by official experts, and, if necessary, the injured persons are attended by specialists.

From the inevitable conclusion that there exists no possibility of any general application of the accident statistics of one country to another country, one is forced to depend upon one's own experience. And yet even the application of personal material is not possible without restrictions, since the accident risk is subjected to considerable changes during the course of time. As a consequence, it is apparent that only the most recent data may be used and conclusions drawn from a limited experience are not sound.

In spite of the many reasons which make impossible an international comparison of statistics on industrial accidents, on the whole, detailed explanation of the various data available may be useful. One conclusion has been reached, after employing all possible precautions in regard to the variations in the basic material in making an analysis of fatality rates in several occupations; namely, that the United States has not reached the desired objective of its motto of "Safety First." Without any doubt preventive measures have improved the situation but the same improvement has occurred in many other countries, and the fact remains that the loss of life and money in America through avoidable accidents is proportionally much larger than in many other countries.

Industrial Disputes

TREND OF STRIKES

THE DOWNWARD trend in number of strikes, which has been evident since June 1937, took a further and more pronounced drop in December. This decrease reflects the combined influences of the usual winter decline in number of strikes as well as the recession in business which started a few weeks before. Preliminary estimates indicate 155 new strikes in December in which 30,000 workers were involved. There were about 650,000 man-days of idleness in December as a result of 320 strikes in progress during the month. These figures for December are lower than corresponding figures for any other month in 1937. As compared with November, they indicate reductions of 38 percent in number of strikes, 57 percent in number of workers involved, and 28 percent in man-days idle.

Trend of Strikes, 1933 to December 1937 [1]

Year and month	Number of strikes					Workers involved in strikes		Man-days idle during month or year
	Continued from preceding month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ended in month	In effect at end of month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	
1933	----------	1,695	----------	----------	----------	1,168,272	----------	16,872,128
1934	----------	1,856	----------	----------	----------	1,466,695	----------	19,591,949
1935	----------	2,014	----------	----------	----------	1,117,213	----------	15,456,337
1936	----------	2,172	----------	----------	----------	788,648	----------	13,901,956
1936								
January	84	167	251	149	102	32,406	59,153	635,519
February	102	148	250	131	119	63,056	89,735	748,491
March	119	185	304	174	130	75,191	122,162	1,331,162
April	130	183	313	179	134	65,379	95,526	699,900
May	134	206	340	219	121	72,824	123,030	1,019,171
June	121	188	309	158	151	63,429	133,531	1,327,678
July	151	173	324	197	127	38,017	125,281	1,105,480
August	127	228	355	210	145	68,752	118,268	911,216
September	145	234	379	236	143	65,994	130,875	1,063,100
October	143	192	335	219	116	100,845	148,570	1,053,878
November	116	136	252	126	126	70,116	157,007	1,940,628
December	126	132	258	158	100	72,639	184,859	2,065,733
1937								
January	100	172	272	133	139	108,697	214,344	2,720,553
February	139	209	348	203	145	112,095	239,109	1,519,850
March	145	607	752	506	246	288,083	355,814	3,281,806
April	246	523	769	497	272	220,524	390,048	3,351,721
May	272	584	856	540	316	320,095	437,601	2,943,226
June	316	585	901	559	342	281,511	473,650	4,963,441
July	342	436	778	502	276	141,992	352,248	3,024,241
August	276	412	688	422	266	137,805	234,105	2,236,079
September	266	322	588	354	234	83,667	153,734	1,400,855
October	234	278	512	342	170	61,395	116,106	1,125,515
November [1]	170	250	420	255	165	70,000	110,000	900,000
December [1]	165	155	320	195	125	30,000	60,000	650,000

[1] Strikes involving fewer than 6 workers or lasting less than 1 day are not included in this table nor in the following tables. Notices or leads regarding strikes are obtained by the Bureau from more than 650 daily papers, labor papers, and trade journals, as well as from all Government labor boards. Letters are written to representatives of parties in the disputes asking for detailed and authentic information. Since answers to some of these letters have not yet been received, the figures given for the late months are not final. This is particularly true with regard to figures for the last 2 months, and these should be considered as preliminary estimates.

Although strike activity in December represented a significant decline as compared with other months of 1937, there were more strikes last December than in any December since 1918. The number of workers involved was exceeded, however, in December 1933 and 1936. Comparisons with December a year ago show an increase of 17 percent in number of strikes, but reductions of 59 percent in number of workers involved and 69 percent in man-days of idleness.

The figures given for November and December are merely preliminary estimates and are subject to change as later information is received. An analysis of strikes in each of these months, based on detailed and verified information will appear in subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review.

ANALYSIS OF STRIKES IN OCTOBER 1937 [1]

AS COMPARED with the preceding spring and summer months, there was a substantial reduction in number of strikes, number of workers involved, and amount of idleness due to labor disputes during October 1937. The following analysis is based on information for 278 strikes which began in October, plus 234 which began prior to but continued into October, making a total of 512 strikes in progress during the month. These strikes resulted in 1,125,000 man-days of idleness for 116,000 workers during October—an average of about 9½ working days for each worker involved.

The greatest concentration of new strikes in October was in the following industry groups: Trade (42), transportation and communication (39), domestic and personal service (36), textiles, including clothing (31), and lumber and allied products (21). The strikes in these five groups accounted for 60 percent of the total. The largest numbers of man-days of idleness because of strikes were in (1) the domestic and personal-service industries (183,000), principally a result of the strike of laundry workers in Cincinnati, Ohio, and northern Kentucky; (2) the lumber industries (172,000), chiefly because of the disputes involving logging and sawmill workers in northern Minnesota and around Portland, Oreg.; (3) textiles (142,000) caused by a number of medium-sized strikes both in the fabric and clothing industries; and (4) transportation and communication (105,000) resulting from a strike of longshoremen on the South Atlantic coast in progress from October 16 to November 5.

[1] Detailed information on a few strikes has not yet been received. (See footnote to preceding table.) Data on missing strikes will be included in the annual report.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in October 1937, by Industry*

Industry	Beginning in October		In progress during October		Man-days idle during October
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All industries	278	61,395	512	116,106	1,125,515
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	8	1,058	13	2,351	33,619
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	1	311	1	311	622
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	1	408	1	408	7,750
Hardware			1	38	798
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings			1	250	6,250
Stoves	1	169	3	393	5,445
Structural and ornamental metal work	1	50	1	50	250
Tin cans and other tinware			1	650	10,400
Wirework	1	80	2	126	344
Other	1	40	2	125	1,760
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	13	1,467	26	3,407	42,225
Agricultural implements	1	98	1	98	294
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	6	448	6	448	6,872
Foundry and machine-shop products	3	587	8	992	7,434
Radios and phonographs			1	540	13,500
Other	3	334	10	1,329	14,125
Transportation equipment	9	8,266	12	10,814	73,135
Aircraft			1	1,388	20,820
Automobiles, bodies and parts	9	8,266	9	8,266	46,202
Cars, electric and steam railroad			1	1,059	5,295
Shipbuilding			1	101	808
Railroad repair shops	1	110	1	110	2,310
Electric railroad	1	110	1	110	2,310
Nonferrous metals and their products	3	272	9	3,623	51,947
Brass, bronze, and copper products	2	167	4	3,311	48,634
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices			1	25	525
Lighting equipment			1	74	1,554
Silverware and plated ware	1	105	1	105	1,050
Other			2	108	184
Lumber and allied products	21	5,848	54	16,378	172,137
Furniture	9	1,405	23	5,829	50,810
Millwork and planing	3	426	8	1,285	8,580
Sawmills and logging camps	5	3,874	9	7,285	85,119
Other	4	143	14	1,977	27,628
Stone, clay, and glass products	4	513	17	2,316	18,532
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	1	40	2	129	907
Cement	1	279	5	1,186	8,516
Glass	1	31	3	518	3,216
Marble, granite, slate, and other products			2	147	2,766
Pottery			2	45	540
Other	1	163	3	291	2,587
Textiles and their products	31	4,516	70	13,691	141,868
Fabrics:					
Cotton goods	4	1,221	6	2,264	23,448
Dyeing and finishing textiles	2	159	2	159	1,341
Silk and rayon goods	1	250	4	475	3,400
Woolen and worsted goods			3	490	5,580
Other	2	74	5	216	3,033
Wearing apparel:					
Clothing, men's	1	50	1	50	200
Clothing, women's	9	1,965	22	3,021	27,928
Corsets and allied garments	1	8	1	8	16
Men's furnishings	4	159	4	159	625
Hats, caps, and millinery	1	16	4	2,261	22,892
Shirts and collars			1	190	2,280
Hosiery	2	469	7	1,610	15,196
Knit goods	3	98	5	928	17,855
Other	1	47	5	1,860	18,074
Leather and its manufactures	5	656	10	1,125	12,479
Boots and shoes	3	64	5	234	4,102
Leather	1	300	3	545	6,145
Other leather goods	1	292	2	346	2,232

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in October 1937, by Industry*—Continued

Industry	Beginning in October		In progress during October		Man-days idle during October
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
Food and kindred products	**15**	**885**	**28**	**1 754**	**24, 670**
Baking	8	519	15	1, 185	16, 298
Beverages			1	64	1, 408
Canning and preserving	1	75	2	112	1, 412
Confectionery	3	145	3	145	1, 102
Flour and grain mills	1	80	2	170	4, 180
Slaughtering and meat packing	1	24	1	24	48
Other	1	42	2	54	222
Tobacco manufactures	**1**	**640**	**2**	**770**	**7, 840**
Cigars	1	640	2	770	7, 840
Paper and printing	**7**	**187**	**18**	**1, 564**	**21, 228**
Boxes, paper			2	298	2, 334
Paper and pulp			1	35	70
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job	2	66	4	680	10, 904
Newspapers and periodicals	2	29	5	310	5, 831
Other	3	92	6	241	2, 089
Chemicals and allied products	**1**	**9**	**5**	**561**	**5, 147**
Druggists' preparations			1	125	750
Paint and varnishes	1	9	2	136	2, 467
Other			2	300	1, 930
Rubber products	**2**	**268**	**3**	**369**	**5, 831**
Other rubber goods	2	268	3	369	5, 831
Miscellaneous manufacturing	**11**	**813**	**20**	**3, 409**	**30, 492**
Electric light, power, and manufactured gas	1	58	1	58	290
Furriers and fur factories			1	750	750
Other	10	755	18	2, 601	29, 452
Extraction of minerals	**7**	**9, 622**	**10**	**10, 239**	**64, 379**
Coal mining, anthracite	1	5, 650	1	5, 650	39, 550
Coal mining, bituminous	4	3, 923	6	4, 504	23, 695
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	1	21	1	21	210
Crude petroleum producing	1	28	2	64	924
Transportation and communication	**39**	**14, 290**	**50**	**16, 704**	**104, 597**
Water transportation	14	10, 317	19	10, 771	59, 063
Motortruck transportation	20	2, 614	22	4, 245	34, 204
Motorbus transportation	2	82	3	94	1, 312
Taxicabs and miscellaneous	3	1, 277	6	1, 594	10, 018
Trade	**42**	**4, 677**	**62**	**6, 130**	**58, 917**
Wholesale	13	1, 470	18	1, 659	14, 894
Retail	29	3, 207	44	4, 471	44, 023
Domestic and personal service	**36**	**4, 845**	**54**	**11, 142**	**183, 485**
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses	16	736	20	1, 275	18, 877
Personal service, barbers, beauty parlors	2	803	3	1, 303	6, 412
Laundries	10	1, 050	19	4, 830	92, 433
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing	4	156	6	1, 489	33, 087
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry)	4	2, 100	6	2, 245	32, 676
Professional service	**1**	**36**	**4**	**395**	**4, 032**
Recreation and amusement	1	36	2	126	780
Semiprofessional, attendants, and helpers			2	269	3, 252
Building and construction	**15**	**1, 967**	**25**	**4, 818**	**23, 268**
Buildings, exclusive of P. W. A.	9	975	17	3, 708	18, 203
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and P. W. A. buildings)	6	992	8	1, 110	5, 065
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	**1**	**158**	**1**	**158**	**158**
Other nonmanufacturing industries	**7**	**292**	**20**	**4, 280**	**43, 229**

The October strikes in New York (71) and Pennsylvania (37) amounted to about 39 percent of the total for the entire country. Another 33 percent of the strikes were in the following seven States: California (19), Michigan (16), Ohio and Indiana (13 each), Massachusetts (12), and Illinois and New Jersey (10 each).

Of the 12 strikes in progress during October which extended across State lines, as indicated at the end of table 2, the largest was the strike of East coast longshoremen, referred to above. This strike extended into North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida. The next largest was the strike of laundry workers in Cincinnati, Ohio, and northern Kentucky, which began September 28 and was still in progress at the end of October.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in October 1937, by States*

State	Beginning in October		In progress during October		Man-days idle during October
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All States	278	61,395	512	116,106	1,125,513
Alabama	5	1,729	11	2,370	15,555
California	19	1,416	33	5,746	56,608
Connecticut	2	48	7	1,953	8,317
District of Columbia	3	590	5	638	8,428
Florida	5	237	6	245	3,372
Georgia	1	23	4	447	6,944
Illinois	10	3,093	17	4,761	47,177
Indiana	13	3,166	18	6,376	72,205
Iowa	1	29	7	681	1,192
Kansas			1	101	808
Kentucky	3	419	5	570	7,331
Louisiana	2	412	2	412	3,260
Maryland	2	147	3	293	1,791
Massachusetts	12	1,486	20	2,870	26,979
Michigan	16	5,860	28	8,227	42,880
Minnesota	4	4,163	8	5,716	80,759
Mississippi			1	211	4,431
Missouri	6	2,214	19	3,865	42,125
Montana	1	10	2	26	334
Nebraska	2	37	2	37	81
New Hampshire	1	24	1	24	48
New Jersey	10	642	19	1,347	16,156
New York	71	8,797	127	16,999	152,421
North Carolina	3	683	5	1,605	18,109
North Dakota	1	194	3	247	4,599
Ohio	13	1,064	24	[illegible]38	33,291
Oklahoma	2	648	3	684	4,644
Oregon	2	93	7	3,632	51,898
Pennsylvania	37	11,450	57	16,254	136,409
Rhode Island	3	845	4	873	3,491
Tennessee	4	739	5	855	11,681
Texas	1	32	5	284	4,183
Utah	2	36	2	36	126
Virginia	4	910	5	1,210	10,749
Washington	1	400	4	1,165	16,115
West Virginia	2	168	5	674	6,110
Wisconsin	9	966	25	6,104	78,337
Interstate	5	8,625	12	15,530	146,562

The average number of workers involved in the strikes beginning in October was 221. About 23 percent of the strikes involved fewer than 20 workers each and an additional 41 percent involved from 20 to 100 workers each. Only two strikes, as shown in table 3, involved

as many as 5,000 workers. These were the strike of longshoremen on the South Atlantic coast, referred to above, and a short strike of anthracite miners in Pennsylvania from October 5 to 13.

TABLE 3.—*Strikes Beginning in October 1937, Classified by Number of Workers Involved*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—						
		6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000	10,000 and over
All industries	278	63	114	77	12	10	2	-------
Manufacturing								
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	6	------	3	3	------	------	-------	-------
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	13	3	4	6	------	------	-------	-------
Transportation equipment	9	2	1	1	------	5	-------	-------
Railroad repair shops	1	------	------	1	------	------	-------	-------
Nonferrous metals and their products	3	------	1	2	------	------	-------	-------
Lumber and allied products	21	5	8	6	1	1	-------	-------
Stone, clay, and glass products	4	------	2	2	------	------	-------	-------
Textiles and their products	31	4	18	6	2	1	-------	-------
Leather and its manufactures	5	1	2	2	------	------	-------	-------
Food and kindred products	15	4	8	3	------	------	-------	-------
Tobacco manufactures	1	------	------	------	1	------	-------	-------
Paper and printing	7	2	5	------	------	------	-------	-------
Chemicals and allied products	1	1	------	------	------	------	-------	-------
Rubber products	2	------	1	1	------	------	-------	-------
Miscellaneous manufactures	11	1	8	2	------	------	-------	-------
Nonmanufacturing								
Extraction of minerals	7	------	2	1	2	1	1	-------
Transportation and communication	39	11	14	9	3	1	1	-------
Trade	42	12	14	15	1	------	-------	-------
Domestic and personal service	36	11	13	10	1	1	-------	-------
Professional service	1	------	1	------	------	------	-------	-------
Building and construction	15	3	6	5	1	------	-------	-------
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	1	------	------	1	------	------	-------	-------
Other nonmanufacturing industries	7	3	3	1	------	------	-------	-------

Nearly 60 percent of the strikes in October were principally over union organization matters, 25 percent chiefly over wages and hours, and 15 percent over miscellaneous issues. These are approximately the same proportions as have been found in the preceding summer and fall months of 1937. Of the workers involved in the October strikes, 42 percent were concerned principally with union organization issues, 36 percent with wages and hours, and 21 percent with questions of union rivalry, lay-off policies, or other issues.

TABLE 4.—*Major Issues Involved in Strikes Beginning in October 1937*

Major issues	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues	278	100.0	61,395	100.0
Wages and hours	69	24.8	22,300	36.3
Wage increase	37	13.3	11,880	19.3
Wage decrease	4	1.4	556	.9
Wage increase, hour decrease	25	9.0	9,687	15.8
Wage decrease, hour increase	1	.4	20	(1)
Hour decrease	2	.7	157	.3
Union organization	165	59.4	25,928	42.3
Recognition	33	11.9	6,909	11.3
Recognition and wages	32	11.5	6,020	9.8
Recognition and hours	1	.4	175	.3
Recognition, wages, and hours	56	20.1	7,332	12.0
Closed shop	23	8.3	2,607	4.2
Discrimination	14	5.0	2,773	4.5
Other	6	2.2	112	.2
Miscellaneous	44	15.8	13,167	21.4
Sympathy	5	1.8	274	.4
Rival unions or factions	8	2.9	3,302	5.4
Jurisdiction	7	2.5	955	1.6
Other	24	8.6	8,636	14.0

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

The 342 strikes which were terminated in October are classified in table 5 according to industry group and duration. About 30 percent of them lasted less than a week and 50 percent were terminated less than one-half month after they began. The average duration of the 342 strikes was nearly 27 calendar days. Less than 5 percent (16 strikes) had been in progress three months or more. Practically all of these strikes were against individual firms and most of them involved only a small number of workers.

TABLE 5.—*Duration of Strikes Ending in October 1937*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes with duration of—					
		Less than 1 week	1 week and less than ½ month	½ and less than 1 month	1 and less than 2 months	2 and less than 3 months	3 months or more
All industries	342	105	66	66	67	22	16
Manufacturing							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	7	1	2	1	3		
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	17	4	2	6	3	2	
Transportation equipment	10	4	2	2	2		
Nonferrous metals and their products	5	2		1	2		
Lumber and allied products	38	8	2	8	14	4	2
Stone, clay, and glass products	13		3	4	2	2	2
Textiles and their products	40	9	6	7	10	2	6
Leather and its manufactures	6	1	3	1		1	
Food and kindred products	18	7	5	2	3	1	
Tobacco manufactures	1						1
Paper and printing	14	3	5	2	4		
Chemicals and allied products	4		1	1	1	1	
Rubber products	2			1	1		
Miscellaneous manufactures	11	2	1	1	5	1	1
Nonmanufacturing							
Extraction of minerals	6	2	4				
Transportation and communication	35	18	8	6	1	2	
Trade	42	17	8	10	2	3	2
Domestic and personal service	35	16	7	5	5	2	
Professional service	4		1	1	1		1
Building and construction	20	7	4	4	4		1
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	1	1					
Other nonmanufacturing industries	13	3	2	3	4	1	

Government conciliators and labor boards assisted in settling approximately the same proportion of the strikes ending in October as were settled directly between the employers and representatives of organized workers—about 42 percent in each case. About 52 percent of the total workers involved were in the strikes which the Government agencies helped to settle and 34 percent were in the strikes settled directly between the employers and union representatives. About 15 percent of the strikes, including 13 percent of the workers, were terminated without formal settlements. In most of these cases the strikers simply went back to work without settlements or they lost their jobs entirely through replacement or discontinuation of the employers' business.

TABLE 6.—*Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in October 1937*

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	342	100.0	72,279	100.0
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly	142	41.5	24,407	33.8
Government conciliators or labor boards	144	42.1	37,839	52.3
Private conciliators or arbitrators	6	1.8	489	.7
Terminated without formal settlement	50	14.6	9,544	13.2

The workers were successful in obtaining substantially all of their demands in 42 percent of the strikes ending in October. They obtained partial gains or compromises in 31 percent and gained little or nothing in 20 percent. The proportions of workers in these three groups were approximately 26 percent, 50 percent, and 19 percent, respectively. (See table 7.)

The data in table 8, which shows the results of strikes ending in October in relation to the major issues involved, indicate that about the same proportion of strikes over wages and hours were successful, from the workers' viewpoint, as the strikes over union organization matters. A larger proportion of the wage-and-hour strikes were compromised and a smaller proportion lost. Three-fourths of the workers in the wage-and-hour strikes obtained compromises while 19 percent won their strikes and 6 percent lost. In the strikes over union organization matters, 41 percent of the workers obtained compromises while 31 percent won and 27 percent lost.

TABLE 7.—*Results of Strikes Ending in October 1937*

Results	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	342	100.0	72,279	100.0
Substantial gains to workers	145	42.3	18,706	25.9
Partial gains or compromises	107	31.3	35,830	49.6
Little or no gains to workers	68	19.9	13,550	18.7
Jurisdiction, rival union or faction settlements	18	5.3	3,972	5.5
Indeterminate	3	.9	116	.2
Not reported	1	.3	105	.1

TABLE 8.—*Results of Strikes Ending in October 1937, in Relation to Major Issues Involved*

Major issues	Total	Strikes resulting in—					
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	Indeterminate	Not reported
	Number of strikes						
All issues	342	145	107	68	18	3	1
Wages and hours	68	29	26	13	----	----	----
Wage increase	41	18	15	8	----	----	----
Wage decrease	5	2	1	2	----	----	----
Wage increase, hour decrease	20	8	10	2	----	----	----
Wage decrease, hour increase	1	1	----	----	----	----	----
Hour decrease	1	----	----	1	----	----	----
Union organization	230	105	73	50	----	1	1
Recognition	45	20	5	18	----	1	1
Recognition and wages	47	22	14	11	----	----	----
Recognition, wages, and hours	81	37	33	11	----	----	----
Closed shop	36	15	15	6	----	----	----
Discrimination	16	8	4	4	----	----	----
Other	5	3	2	----	----	----	----
Miscellaneous	44	11	8	5	18	2	----
Sympathy	3	1	----	1	----	1	----
Rival unions or factions	11	----	----	----	11	----	----
Jurisdiction	7	----	----	----	7	----	----
Other	23	10	8	4	----	1	----
	Number of workers involved						
All issues	72,279	18,706	35,830	13,550	3,972	116	105
Wages and hours	15,191	2,935	11,308	948	----	----	----
Wage increase	13,057	1,803	10,544	710	----	----	----
Wage decrease	641	430	60	151	----	----	----
Wage increase, hour decrease	1,466	682	704	80	----	----	----
Wage decrease, hour increase	20	20	----	----	----	----	----
Hour decrease	7	----	----	7	----	----	----
Union organization	43,698	13,494	18,073	11,995	----	31	105
Recognition	6,541	1,990	226	4,189	----	31	105
Recognition and wages	6,388	1,930	2,795	1,663	----	----	----
Recognition, wages, and hours	18,043	5,935	10,317	1,791	----	----	----
Closed shop	8,090	1,655	3,804	2,631	----	----	----
Discrimination	4,563	1,950	892	1,721	----	----	----
Other	73	34	39	----	----	----	----
Miscellaneous	13,390	2,277	6,449	607	3,972	85	----
Sympathy	257	215	----	32	----	10	----
Rival unions or factions	3,531	----	----	----	3,531	----	----
Jurisdiction	441	----	----	----	441	----	----
Other	9,161	2,062	6,449	575	----	75	----

CONCILIATION WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, DECEMBER 1937

DURING December 1937 conciliators of the Department of Labor handled 116 disputes which involved directly and indirectly about 37,061 workers. This mediation service was requested by either one or both parties to the disputes. Some of these disputes had already developed into strikes before the Department of Labor was requested to intervene. In others, strikes were threatened but had not yet taken place. In some cases, although no strike was immediately threatened, a controversy between employer and workers had developed to such a stage that an outside mediator was deemed necessary.

The Department of Labor conciliators were successful in adjusting 62 of these disputes, 35 were pending at the end of the month, 8 were referred to other services, 6 were settled by the disputants themselves before the arrival of the conciliator, and 5 could not be adjusted.

The majority of these disputes concerned demands for wage increases. Many were due to alleged discrimination against union members for union activity, others were for union recognition and selection of sole bargaining agency. Some involved hours, overtime rates of pay, vacation with pay, seniority rights, and general working conditions.

These 116 disputes were scattered among 29 different States and the District of Columbia. Workers involved in the disputes are classified in table 2. There were 40 strikes and 76 controversies.

TABLE 1.—*Disputes Handled by Conciliators, December 1937, in Each State*

State	Total disputes		Threatened strikes and controversies		Strikes	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
Alabama	1	75			1	75
Arkansas	4	148	3	86	1	62
California	6	8,139	5	4,139	1	4,000
Colorado	1	75			1	75
Connecticut	7	4,478	5	1,358	2	3,120
District of Columbia	3	680	3	680		
Illinois	2	1,738	1	1,600	1	138
Indiana	5	[1] 880	4	[1] 880	1	(1)
Iowa	5	371	2	65	3	306
Kansas	1	(1)	1	(1)		
Kentucky	1	350			1	350
Louisiana	2	340	1	160	1	180
Maryland	1	4	1	4		
Massachusetts	2	16	2	16		
Michigan	2	300	2	300		
Minnesota	2	1,500	1	500	1	1,000
Missouri	3	835	3	835		
New Jersey	4	641	1	18	3	623
New York	17	[1] 2,249	11	[1] 558	6	1,691
North Carolina	3	5,175	2	36	1	5,139
Ohio	8	[1] 438	6	[1] 228	2	210
Oklahoma	2	[1] 33	1	(1)	1	33
Pennsylvania	18	[1] 2,335	9	[1] 1,541	9	794
Rhode Island	1	300	1	300		
Tennessee	7	3,312	3	3,209	4	103
Texas	2	125	2	125		
Vermont	1	806	1	806		
Virginia	3	503	3	503		
West Virginia	1	30	1	30		
Wisconsin	1	1,185	1	1,185		
Total	116	[1] 37,061	76	[1] 19,162	40	[1] 17,899

[1] Exact number not known.

TABLE 2.—*Disputes Handled by Conciliators, by Craft of Workers Involved, December 1937*

Craft	Total disputes		Threatened strikes and controversies		Strikes	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
Agriculture	1	4,000			1	4,000
Automobile	2	35	1	30	1	5
Bakery	2	[1] 11			2	[1] 11
Box makers	1	(1)	1	(1)		
Brick and clay workers	2	125	2	125		
Broommakers	1	(1)	1	(1)		
Building	1	600	1	600		
Building service	1	500	1	500		
Chemical workers	1	165	1	165		
Clerks	5	[1] 416	3	[1] 2	2	414
Drivers	10	1,298	8	[1] 733	2	565
Electrical workers	2	112	2	112		
Engineers	2	135	1	118	1	17
Fiber workers	1	(1)			1	(1)
Firemen	1	70	1	70		
Fishermen	1	1,000	1	1,000		
Food handlers	5	1,366	1	135	4	1,231
Furniture workers	2	205	1	130	1	75
Garment workers	1	280	1	280		
Glass workers	2	24	1	21	1	3
Hotel workers	5	99	5	99		
Insurance salesmen	1	(1)	1	(1)		
Laundry workers	7	[1] 467	3	233	4	234
Liquor handlers	2	1,125	1	425	1	700
Longshoremen	4	103			4	103
Mechanics	10	[1] 4,274	5	[1] 715	5	3,559
Messengers	1	27	1	27		
Mill carpenters	1	2,900	1	2,900		
Millinery	1	138			1	138
Miners—coal	2	1,150	1	800	1	350
Office workers	1	(1)	1	(1)		
Oil workers	5	[1] 409	2	[1] 126	3	283
Painters	1	30	1	30		
Paper workers	5	[1] 693	4	693	1	(1)
Printing	2	[1] 60	1	(1)	1	60
Rubber workers	3	2,803	3	2,803		
Shipping	3	3,113	3	3,113		
Steel and iron	2	1,024	1	24	1	1,000
Stove workers	2	433	2	433		
Textiles	11	[1] 7,516	9	[1] 2,365	2	5,151
Timber workers	1	305	1	305		
Warehousemen	2	[1] 50	2	[1] 50		
Total	116	[1] 37,061	76	[1] 19,162	40	[1] 17,899

[1] Exact number not known.

Cost of Living

EXPENDITURES FOR ELECTRICAL APPLIANCES BY WORKERS IN 42 CITIES [1]

FIGURES are now available on expenditures for electrical appliances and equipment by white and Negro families in cities covered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics study of the money disbursements of wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers.[2] Averages for expenditures and the percent of families spending for various items of electric equipment for five regions and New York City show interesting variations.

The cities with population over 50,000 from which the data for regional averages presented in this article were secured are as follows: North Atlantic: Boston, Buffalo, Johnstown, Lancaster, Manchester, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Portland, Rochester, Scranton, and Springfield, Mass. East North Central: Cincinnati, Cleveland, Columbus, Detroit, Grand Rapids, Indianapolis, Lansing, Milwaukee. West North Central: Denver, Kansas City, Minneapolis, St. Louis, Salt Lake City. Southern: Baltimore, Birmingham, Dallas, Houston, Jackson, Jacksonville, Louisville, Memphis, Mobile, New Orleans, Norfolk, Richmond. Pacific: Los Angeles, Sacramento, San Diego, San Francisco, Seattle. Groups of Negro families were studied in Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, New York City, Cincinnati, Indianapolis, Kansas City, St. Louis, Baltimore, Birmingham, Louisville, Memphis, New Orleans, Norfolk, Jackson, Mobile, and Richmond. Figures from New York City have been presented separately because of the distinctive expenditure patterns which characterize such a metropolitan area.

No Negro families were studied in the Pacific region. Groups of Mexican families were studied in Houston, Tex., and Los Angeles, Calif., but the data secured have not been included in the figures presented here.

The families from which the data here reported were obtained were surveyed as part of the Nation-wide study conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the purpose of revising the cost-of-living indexes

[1] Prepared by the Bureau's Cost of Living Division, Faith M. Williams, chief.

[2] Other articles on money disbursements of wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers have appeared in the following issues of the Monthly Labor Review: March 1936, May 1936, June 1936, September 1936, January 1937, April 1937, June 1937, and September 1937. Radios as an item of expenditure will be covered in an article in a forthcoming number of the Monthly Labor Review.

which it publishes. The families were selected to represent a cross-section of employed wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers in each of the cities studied. In 16 cities, employed Negro workers were included. All the families scheduled included one or more wage earners or lower-salaried clerical workers who were employed a minimum of 1,008 hours in at least 36 weeks in the year. No data were included from families with incomes of less than $500 a year or from families which received either direct or work relief. An exception was made in the case of families in which the chief earner was employed in an industry normally seasonal. Such families were included if the chief earner had employment for three and one half 8-hour days in each of 30 weeks.

Families have been classified by economic level, on the basis of the total amount spent per year per expenditure unit, a measure which takes into account total family expenditure and family size and composition (table 1). An explanation of this measure was given in the Monthly Labor Review for March 1936 (pp. 558–559). A total of 12,903 white families and 1,566 Negro families are included.

TABLE 1.—*Average Annual Expenditures for Electrical Appliances and Equipment by White and Negro Families, by Economic Levels and Geographic Regions, 1933–36* [1]

Geographic region	White families				Negro families		
	All families	Economic level, i. e., families spending per expenditure unit—			All families	Economic level, i. e., families spending per expenditure unit—	
		Under $400	$400 to $600	$600 and over		Under $400	$400 and over [2]
	Number of families						
North Atlantic [3]	3,193	1,285	1,138	770	198	104	94
New York City	897	194	331	372	100	25	75
East North Central	2,694	839	1,023	832	201	131	70
West North Central	1,767	618	649	500	209	116	93
Southern	2,710	1,027	982	701	858	676	182
Pacific	1,642	408	622	612	----------	----------	----------
	Average annual expenditures						
North Atlantic [3]	$17.93	$9.26	$20.34	$28.79	$7.30	$5.65	$9.08
New York City	8.84	2.99	7.78	12.80	8.14	1.20	10.45
East North Central	23.35	11.00	23.35	35.74	8.43	7.41	10.37
West North Central	22.36	15.20	22.00	31.61	13.33	8.50	19.35
Southern	22.36	12.65	20.83	38.72	3.20	1.44	9.78
Pacific	18.10	8.81	19.21	23.23	----------	----------	----------

[1] For 1 year within the period September 1933 to August 1936. Approximately 52 percent of the data apply to the year ending February 1935.
[2] 128 families in this group spent more than $600 per expenditure unit as follows: North Atlantic, 28 families; New York City, 38; East North Central, 10; West North Central, 29; Southern, 23.
[3] Exclusive of New York City.

Average annual expenditures by the white families for all types of electrical appliances and equipment (except radios and electrically operated musical instruments) varied from $8.84 in New York City

to $23.35 in the East North Central area. The averages for the East North Central, the West North Central, and the Southern regions are strikingly similar; those for the two last named being identical and that for the East North Central $1 higher. The highest average expenditure per family for electrical apparatus shown for any group is the $38.72 invested by the southern white families spending $600 or more per expenditure unit per year for all items. The expenditures of the southern white families for new electrical apparatus during the period of the survey may have been influenced by the fact that reductions in rates charged for electric power occurred during the year represented by the data, or in the 6 months just previous, in 7 out of the 11 southern cities included in the study for which rates are obtained by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Average expenditures by Negro families were lower and varied more widely from region to region than those of the white families. The average for the West North Central Negroes is four times that of the southern Negroes, $13.33 as compared with $3.20.

Variations in expenditures for electrical appliances and equipment from one economic level to another were greater than from one region to another within each racial group. Within each region and racial group average expenditures were consistently higher at the higher economic levels. Within the white group the greatest variation occurred in the East North Central region where the expenditures of the families in the highest bracket were three and one-fourth times those of the families in the lowest. Within the Negro group the widest variation occurred in the Southern region, where the families in the higher group showed an average expenditure six times as great as those in the lower. The number of Negro families at the level spending $600 or more per expenditure unit did not seem large enough to justify separate averages. New York City showed a greater variation than any of the regional groups for both white and Negro families. Expenditures of white families at the highest level were four times as large as those of families at the lowest level. Negro families in the higher group had expenditures nine times those of families in the lower group.

Expenditures—Regional

The percentage of families purchasing 1 or more of 12 types of household equipment operated by electricity, and average expenditures for all the items and for each item are presented in table 2.

Expenditures for electrical refrigerators were larger than those for any other item. The amount spent for this single piece of equipment represented almost two-thirds of total expenditures for electrical appliances and equipment by white families in the Southern

region and approximately half in the North Atlantic, East North Central, and West North Central areas. Expenditures for washing machines were next, and for vacuum cleaners third.

TABLE 2.—*Average Expenditures [1] by White and Negro Families for Electrical Appliances and Equipment, by Economic Levels and Geographic Regions, 1933–36 [2]*

NORTH ATLANTIC, EXCLUSIVE OF NEW YORK CITY

Type of appliances	White families				Negro families		
	All families	Families spending per expenditure unit—			All families	Families spending per expenditure unit—	
		Under $400	$400 to $600	$600 and over		Under $400	$400 and over [3]
	Percent purchasing specified appliances						
Vacuum cleaners	4.4	1.7	5.2	7.9	2.5	1.0	4.3
Refrigerators (electric)	5.4	2.0	6.6	9.4	4.0	2.9	5.3
Electric stoves and hot plates	.7	.5	.5	1.4	0	0	0
Washing machines	6.2	5.3	7.4	5.8	1.0	1.0	1.1
Irons	5.8	5.5	5.5	6.5	8.1	7.7	8.5
Ironers and mangles	.2	.1	.3	.4	0	0	0
Heaters and fans	1.2	.2	1.7	2.1	0	0	0
Light bulbs	54.3	51.5	54.7	58.6	54.5	54.8	54.3
Lamps	10.2	6.1	10.6	16.5	8.6	1.9	16.0
Toasters	3.3	1.9	3.5	5.2	.5	0	1.1
Sewing machines (electric)	.7	.3	.7	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.1
Other	5.2	2.1	4.9	10.8	4.5	4.8	4.3
	Average expenditure [1]						
All items	$17.93	$9.26	$20.34	$28.79	$7.30	$5.65	$9.08
Vacuum cleaners	2.14	.83	2.80	3.38	.36	.27	.46
Refrigerators (electric)	8.79	3.41	10.23	15.64	3.81	2.90	4.81
Electric stoves and hot plates	.43	.17	.35	.96	0	0	0
Washing machines	3.92	3.30	4.29	4.40	.53	.40	.67
Irons	.23	.19	.24	.28	.41	.38	.43
Ironers and mangles	.08	.04	.07	.16	0	0	0
Heaters and fans	.06	.01	.11	.06	0	0	0
Light bulbs	.77	.64	.76	.99	.53	.48	.58
Lamps	.54	.21	.54	1.10	.43	.05	.85
Toasters	.08	.04	.08	.13	.01	0	.01
Sewing machines (electric)	.62	.32	.59	1.15	1.02	1.15	.88
Other	.27	.10	.28	.54	.20	.02	.39

NEW YORK CITY

	Percent purchasing specified appliances						
Vacuum cleaners	1.9	0.5	1.5	3.0	1.0	0	1.3
Refrigerators (electric)	3.1	.5	2.7	4.8	3.0	0	4.0
Electric stoves and hot plates	0	0	0	0	1.0	0	1.3
Washing machines	.6	0	.9	.5	0	0	0
Irons	7.1	5.2	6.6	8.6	8.0	4.0	9.3
Ironers and mangles	.2	0	0	.5	0	0	0
Heaters and fans	.7	0	0	1.6	0	0	0
Light bulbs	69.1	63.4	74.3	67.5	75.0	76.0	74.7
Lamps	7.6	2.1	5.4	12.4	10.0	12.0	9.3
Toasters	2.9	1.0	2.4	4.3	2.0	0	2.7
Sewing machines (electric)	1.1	1.0	.6	1.6	3.0	0	4.0
Other	2.3	.5	2.4	3.2	7.0	4.0	8.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Expenditures*[1] *by White and Negro Families for Electrical Appliances and Equipment, by Economic Levels and Geographic Regions, 1933–36*[2]—Continued

NEW YORK CITY—Continued

Type of appliances	White families				Negro families		
	All families	Families spending per expenditure unit—			All families	Families spending per expenditure unit—	
		Under $400	$400 to $600	$600 and over		Under $400	$400 and over[3]
	Average expenditure[1]						
All items	$8.84	$2.99	$7.78	$12.80	$8.14	$1.20	$10.45
Vacuum cleaners	.87	.40	.75	1.21	.10	0	.13
Refrigerators (electric)	4.37	.59	4.40	6.32	5.35	0	7.14
Electric stoves and hot plates	0	0	0	0	(4)	0	.01
Washing machines	.66	0	.97	.73	0	0	0
Irons	.29	.18	.29	.35	.20	.16	.21
Ironers and mangles	.06	0	0	.13	0	0	0
Heaters and fans	.01	0	0	.03	0	0	0
Light bulbs	.91	.64	.96	1.00	.78	.63	.82
Lamps	.65	.11	.23	1.30	.59	.40	.65
Toasters	.06	.02	.04	.11	.03	0	.04
Sewing machines (electric)	.88	1.05	.11	1.46	1.00	0	1.33
Other	.08	(4)	.03	.16	.09	.01	.12
EAST NORTH CENTRAL							
	Percent purchasing specified appliances						
Vacuum cleaners	4.7	3.0	3.9	7.5	1.0	0	2.9
Refrigerators (electric)	7.3	2.4	7.4	12.3	2.0	1.5	2.9
Electric stoves and hot plates	.5	0	.4	1.1	1.0	1.5	0
Washing machines	8.6	8.3	8.3	9.3	3.0	3.1	2.9
Irons	5.7	6.0	5.6	5.5	6.0	6.1	5.7
Ironers and mangles	.3	.1	.4	.5	0	0	0
Heaters and fans	2.0	1.0	1.3	3.8	.5	0	1.4
Light bulbs	50.5	51.5	49.0	51.4	39.3	39.7	38.6
Lamps	12.5	6.2	13.3	17.8	7.5	9.2	4.3
Toasters	4.6	3.9	3.1	7.1	.5	.8	0
Sewing machines (electric)	.9	.2	1.0	1.4	.5	.8	0
Other	5.1	3.6	4.7	7.2	0	0	0
	Average expenditure[1]						
All items	$23.35	$11.00	$23.35	$35.74	$8.43	$7.41	$10.37
Vacuum cleaners	2.62	1.35	2.80	3.66	.63	0	1.81
Refrigerators (electric)	12.02	3.44	12.02	20.68	3.35	2.11	5.68
Electric stoves and hot plates	.20	0	.14	.46	1.19	1.83	0
Washing machines	5.35	4.76	5.61	5.64	2.04	2.00	2.10
Irons	.24	.21	.23	.26	.22	.17	.31
Ironers and mangles	.19	.06	.19	.31	0	0	0
Heaters and fans	.06	.02	.03	.14	(4)	0	.02
Light bulbs	.71	.62	.70	.81	.34	.32	.37
Lamps	.78	.24	.64	1.50	.33	.46	.08
Toasters	.10	.05	.06	.19	.03	.05	0
Sewing machines (electric)	.74	.13	.64	1.46	.30	.47	0
Other	.34	.12	.29	.63	0	0	0
WEST NORTH CENTRAL							
	Percent purchasing specified appliances						
Vacuum cleaners	5.4	3.6	7.1	5.6	1.4	0.9	2.2
Refrigerators (electric)	8.1	4.2	8.2	13.0	5.7	3.4	8.6
Electric stoves and hot plates	1.5	1.1	.9	2.8	2.9	1.7	4.3
Washing machines	5.7	7.3	4.8	5.0	2.9	2.6	3.2
Irons	8.4	6.6	9.6	9.0	7.7	6.0	9.7
Ironers and mangles	.4	.3	.3	.6	0	0	0
Heaters and fans	2.7	1.9	1.8	4.6	1.9	0	4.3
Light bulbs	57.6	56.1	57.3	59.8	43.5	42.2	45.2
Lamps	11.5	7.6	12.3	15.4	5.7	3.4	8.6
Toasters	5.4	4.0	6.8	5.2	1.4	2.6	0
Sewing machines (electric)	.9	.6	.6	1.6	0	0	0
Other	4.6	3.9	4.3	6.0	1.4	1.7	1.1

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Expenditures*[1] *by White and Negro Families for Electrical Appliances and Equipment, by Economic Levels and Geographic Regions, 1933–36*[2]—Continued

WEST NORTH CENTRAL—Continued

Type of appliances	White families				Negro families		
	All families	Families spending per expenditure unit—			All families	Families spending per expenditure unit—	
		Under $400	$400 to $600	$600 and over		Under $400	$400 and over[3]
	Average expenditure[1]						
All items	$22.36	$15.20	$22.00	$31.61	$13.33	$8.50	$19.35
Vacuum cleaners	2.05	1.41	2.56	2.16	.75	.34	1.26
Refrigerators (electric)	12.99	7.27	13.06	19.98	9.70	5.96	14.36
Electric stoves and hot plates	.80	.38	.36	1.89	.03	.01	.05
Washing machines	3.11	3.69	2.90	2.65	1.48	1.23	1.80
Irons	.41	.27	.50	.44	.33	.29	.38
Ironers and mangles	.15	.04	.19	.24	0	0	0
Heaters and fans	.20	.20	.12	.31	.10	0	.24
Light bulbs	.71	.62	.68	.86	.42	.31	.56
Lamps	.59	.24	.65	.93	.41	.19	.68
Toasters	.15	.08	.17	.20	.02	.03	0
Sewing machines (electric)	.81	.71	.50	1.32	0	0	0
Other	.39	.29	.31	.63	.09	.14	.02
SOUTHERN							
	Percent purchasing specified appliances						
Vacuum cleaners	2.7	0.8	2.5	5.7	0.1	0.1	0
Refrigerators (electric)	7.7	3.9	7.7	13.1	1.0	.1	4.4
Electric stoves and hot plates	.7	.4	.7	1.0	.8	.6	1.6
Washing machines	4.4	5.2	4.5	3.3	.5	.4	.5
Irons	8.7	8.5	10.1	7.3	7.0	6.2	9.9
Ironers and mangles	.1	0	0	.4	0	0	0
Heaters and fans	6.3	1.9	10.8	6.6	.7	.3	2.2
Light bulbs	58.6	57.7	60.5	57.3	36.9	35.2	43.4
Lamps	9.8	5.9	9.3	16.1	5.2	4.1	9.3
Toasters	2.7	.9	3.2	4.7	.1	0	.5
Sewing machines (electric)	1.3	.9	1.0	2.1	0	0	0
Other	3.1	1.7	3.1	5.4	1.3	1.0	2.2
	Average expenditure[1]						
All items	$22.36	$12.65	$20.83	$38.72	$3.20	$1.44	$9.78
Vacuum cleaners	1.13	.27	.94	2.65	.04	.05	0
Refrigerators (electric)	14.23	6.60	13.21	26.84	1.65	.26	6.85
Electric stoves and hot plates	.45	.30	.44	.67	.21	.01	.94
Washing machines	3.16	3.36	3.28	2.70	.39	.41	.32
Irons	.32	.29	.37	.30	.25	.20	.45
Ironers and mangles	.06	0	0	.25	0	0	0
Heaters and fans	.37	.21	.34	.66	.06	.06	.08
Light bulbs	.70	.59	.73	.84	.30	.26	.45
Lamps	.57	.28	.43	1.17	.25	.18	.51
Toasters	.06	.02	.06	.12	.02	0	.07
Sewing machines (electric)	1.09	.68	.88	1.97	0	0	0
Other	.22	.05	.15	.55	.03	.01	.11
PACIFIC							
	Percent purchasing specified appliances						
Vacuum cleaners	5.7	3.9	6.8	5.9			
Refrigerators (electric)	4.5	.7	4.7	6.9			
Electric stoves and hot plates	1.8	1.0	2.1	2.1			
Washing machines	7.2	6.9	8.7	5.9			
Irons	7.4	7.8	6.9	7.5			
Ironers and mangles	.8	.7	.3	1.3			
Heaters and fans	1.9	1.0	2.1	2.3			
Light bulbs	71.0	73.8	72.0	68.1			
Lamps	11.2	6.1	11.9	13.9			
Toasters	6.9	4.2	9.2	6.4			
Sewing machines (electric)	1.6	1.2	1.6	2.0			
Other	6.5	5.1	5.9	8.0			

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Expenditures*[1] *by White and Negro Families for Electrical Appliances and Equipment, by Economic Levels and Geographic Regions, 1933–36*[2]—Continued

PACIFIC—Continued

Type of appliances	White families				Negro families		
	All families	Families spending per expenditure unit—			All families	Families spending per expenditure unit—	
		Under $400	$400 to $600	$600 and over		Under $400	$400 and over[3]
	Average expenditure[1]						
All items	$18.10	$8.81	$19.21	$23.23			
Vacuum cleaners	2.13	1.14	2.53	2.38			
Refrigerators (electric)	6.70	1.13	6.90	10.22			
Electric stoves and hot plates	.57	.08	1.07	.39			
Washing machines	4.21	3.43	4.79	4.16			
Irons	.25	.23	.21	.32			
Ironers and mangles	.50	.47	.20	.82			
Heaters and fans	.10	.04	.12	.12			
Light bulbs	1.07	1.09	1.05	1.07			
Lamps	.73	.28	.83	.94			
Toasters	.18	.07	.24	.20			
Sewing machines (electric)	1.12	.55	.91	1.72			
Other	.54	.30	.36	.89			

[1] Average expenditures were computed by dividing the appropriate aggregate by the total number of families in the group to which the aggregate applies. Average expenditure per family purchasing can be readily computed by dividing the average for all families by the percent of families purchasing. For example, the average expenditure for all white families in the North Atlantic region for vacuum cleaners, $2.14, may be divided by 0.044, giving an average expenditure of $48.64 per family purchasing.

[2] For 1 year within the period September 1933 to August 1936. Approximately 52 percent of the data apply to the year ended February 1935.

[3] 128 families in this group spent more than $600 per expenditure unit, as follows: North Atlantic, 28; New York City, 38; East North Central, 10; West North Central, 29; Southern, 23.

[4] Less than 0.05 cent.

Interesting differences in expenditure patterns between regions appear when individual items of purchase are considered. As would be expected, climatic conditions and types of heating equipment combined to make average expenditures for refrigerators, and for heaters and fans, highest in the Southern region. The percentage of families purchasing heaters and fans was also highest in the South, but the proportion of families purchasing refrigerators was largest in the West North Central region.

The highest average expenditure by white families for vacuum cleaners, washing machines, and lamps, and the largest proportion of families purchasing the two items last mentioned, occurred in the East North Central region. More families on the average, however, purchased vacuum cleaners in the Pacific and West North Central regions, with the Pacific region leading.

The highest average expenditure for electric stoves and hot plates, and irons, was recorded for the West North Central region; the proportion of families purchasing stoves and hot plates was largest in the Pacific region, and the proportion of families purchasing irons, in the Southern region.

Among the Negro families studied, those in the North Atlantic region had the highest expenditures, on the average, for, and the largest proportion of families purchasing, irons, light bulbs, lamps,

sewing machines, and "other" electrical appliances and equipment. The largest expenditures for electric stoves and hot plates, washing machines, and toasters were found in the East North Central region, but this region was exceeded by the West North Central in the proportion of families purchasing stoves and hot plates and toasters. The West North Central also led in proportion of families purchasing and in average expenditures for refrigerators, and heaters and fans. The proportion of Negro families in this region purchasing electric refrigerators was 5.7 percent, and the average expenditure $9.70, figures which are larger than those for white families in the North Atlantic and the Pacific regions; 5.4 percent and $8.79 for the North Atlantic, and 4.5 percent and $6.70 for the Pacific. Southern Negro families had the lowest average expenditures reported for vacuum cleaners, refrigerators, washing machines, light bulbs, lamps, and sewing machines. The proportion of Negro families purchasing these items was also lowest in the South.

Expenditures—New York City

The New York City white families included in this survey spent considerably less for electrical appliances and equipment than the families studied in any of the five regions. The total average expenditure for white families was $8.84, as compared with $17.93 for the North Atlantic region, the lowest regional average expenditure. These relatively low expenditures were probably due in part to the large proportion of the families studied in New York living in apartments where space is limited, and where refrigerators are, in many cases, furnished by the landlord. They may have been due to larger purchases in earlier years in New York City as compared with other regions. The proportion of families buying vacuum cleaners, refrigerators, electric stoves and hot plates, washing machines, heaters, and fans, lamps, and "other" electrical appliances and equipment was much lower for the New York families than those shown for the regions. Average expenditures for vacuum cleaners, refrigerators, electric stoves, and hot plates, washing machines, ironers, heaters and fans, and "other" electrical equipment were lower than regional figures.

The New York Negro families studied had an average expenditure of $8.14. This figure is higher than the average expenditure for Negro families for the North Atlantic and Southern regions and only a little less than that for the East North Central region.

The proportion of Negro families in New York City purchasing light bulbs, lamps, toasters, sewing machines, and "other" items, and the average expenditures for light bulbs and lamps were larger than the regional averages for Negro families. No Negro families in New York City reported the purchase of washing machines, ironers and mangles, or heaters and fans.

EFFECT OF CHANGES IN BUYING HABITS IN VIRGINIA

BUYING HABITS of the population of Virginia have changed materially in recent years, the State planning board reports.[1] In order to secure information on the trends in retail trade the board analyzed census returns for 1929, 1933, and 1935. It was found that there was a more than normal increase in the amount of business done by eating and drinking places outside the home, and that the number of general stores and the volume of trade decreased, in contrast with an increase for filling stations. Review of the figures further shows the dependence of certain lines of retail trade on business from the rural areas, the lag in the sales of building materials and household furnishings, the failure of lowered prices in the depression period to compensate for the loss in purchasing power, and the fact that absorption of unemployed persons did not restore purchasing power to the level of 1929.

The following table shows a comparison of retail sales in Virginia by business groups and dollar value in 1929, 1933, and 1935. This comparison is on a percentage basis, using the volume of business in 1929 as 100. A column is added showing the relation of 1935 sales to those in 1933.

Indexes of Volume of Retail Sales in Virginia, by Kinds of Business, 1929, 1933, and 1935

Classification	1933 (1929=100.0)	1935 (1929=100.0)	1935 (1933=100.0)
All establishments	59.6	78.4	131.6
Filling stations	105.8	134.5	127.0
Eating and drinking places (exclusive of liquor stores)	78.2	125.4	160.3
Drug stores	74.4	85.2	114.8
Food stores	73.8	90.5	123.3
General merchandise	70.0	78.0	111.5
Apparel group	51.4	72.3	140.5
General stores with food	50.6	54.6	107.8
Other stores (including liquor stores)	50.1	83.9	167.4
Furniture, household, radio, etc	48.3	62.8	130.2
Automotive group	45.8	75.5	164.7
Lumber, building, hardware, etc	42.2	54.0	127.9

The industries shown in the table have been arranged in the order of dollar value of sales in 1933 in order "to indicate in a general way the relative rates of the survival of customer demands in the face of pronounced and general reductions of incomes." In analyzing the results the board concludes that moderate economic recovery in 1935 did not serve to bring sales up as uniformly as the depression of 1933 forced them down.

The board sees in the increased business of public eating and drinking places a change in living habits with certain social implications.

[1] Virginia State Planning Board. Report, vol. XI, Retail Trade. 1937.

This, it considers, may indicate either a break-up of the old family dining group; or the creation of family units that do not undertake the responsibility of housekeeping for all meals; or the increase in persons living away from their families who are consequently without home-making services.

The fall in number of stores is regarded as being influenced by the decline of the "country store" caused by the introduction of changed merchandising methods. It is thought likely that purchasers of food are turning from the purchase of bulk food products to packaged goods at fixed prices. Growth in number of filling stations and volume of business is accounted for by the changed attitude toward the automobile. It has passed from the luxury to the necessity class and is preferred over other articles formerly given precedence as necessaries. The increase in filling stations accounts for an important part of the general increase in retail establishments. The depression also contributed toward the increase in retail establishments; men who could not obtain jobs sometimes opened stores, as did also some among those who returned to rural areas because of unemployment.

COST-OF-LIVING INQUIRY IN GREAT BRITAIN [1]

LIVING costs of British workers and their families on a present-day standard of living are the subject of a survey begun in October 1937 by the Ministry of Labor of Great Britain. The main purpose of the inquiry is to furnish data for a revision of official basic figures from which indexes of cost of living are determined. Index figures now in use are derived from a 1918 level of costs and standards of living. As Ministry of Labor cost-of-living indexes are widely used for wage determinations, their revision to a level that will more accurately represent present-day conditions and practices was considered essential. Collective agreements now in force, affecting nearly 1,500,000 workers in various industries, provide for the automatic adjustment of wage scales to conform to changes in the cost of living as shown by Ministry of Labor cost-of-living indexes.

The random sampling method was used to obtain family budgets from representative workers. The households of 30,000 adult wage earners and small-salaried employees in agriculture and industry, distributed throughout England, Scotland, and Wales, were visited by representatives of the Ministry of Labor and volunteer workers acting under their direction, for the purpose of establishing contacts through which data could be obtained. The families thus selected were furnished with budget forms on which data for the week ending October 23, 1937, were to be entered. The form called for information on—

[1] Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), October 1937, p. 378.

(*a*) The composition of the household—the sex and age (if under 18) of each person and, in the case of wage or salary earners, their occupation and industry and the number of days worked in the previous week;

(*b*) Housing—the rent (or purchase payments) and rates, number of rooms in the house or dwelling, number of rooms let (if any), and rent received;

(*c*) Expenditure on food—the quantity and cost of each item bought, a separate page being provided for each day of the week;

(*d*) Expenditure on gas and electricity;

(*e*) Expenditure during the week on fuel, clothing, furnishing and utensils, fares, amusements, and various other items, a printed list of each of the main items being provided, with a space for "other expenditure";

(*f*) Garden, allotment, etc., produce—the quantities of eggs, vegetables, fruit, etc., raised and consumed in the household during the week.

The families who were requested to report their expenditures for that week will also be asked to furnish the same data, on official forms, for selected weeks in January, April, and July 1938. The Ministry of Labor will pay 2s. 6d. for each completed budget reported on the official forms, "in recognition of the time and labor involved in keeping the necessary records and in filling up the forms."

Additional information was necessary, particularly in the matter of clothing expenditures, on points for which 1 week's record would be inadequate. The selected families were accordingly requested to give the department data on clothing costs over a period of 12 weeks, on special forms furnished weekly by the department. Arrangements were made for reporting, confidentially, upon personal expenditures of wage and salary earners which might not be known to the housewife or other person making the return.

Volunteer services were used to explain the project to the household selected for the inquiry before the work was actually under way. Later, volunteers visited the households during the week studied to advise and assist in filling the questionnaires and after the end of the week to collect the completed budget.

Normal households, without paid lodgers not related to the family, formed the basis of the sample, but single adults living alone were also included. The great majority of the households selected were those of persons coming under the unemployment-insurance system—that is, manual workers, and nonmanual workers whose incomes do not exceed £250 a year. Some uninsured workers in both manual and nonmanual groups were also selected. Names of persons to be visited were taken from the registers of workers insured against unemployment, but persons actually in receipt of unemployment benefit or assistance were excluded.

LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, NOVEMBER 1937

THE EFFECT of the recession in industrial activity is reflected in reports on labor turn-over received from manufacturing establishments by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for November.

The increase in the lay-off rate from 4.45 in October to 5.99 per 100 employees in November was accompanied by lower quit and discharge rates. The quit rate declined from 1.05 to 0.72 and the discharge rate from 0.19 to 0.16. The total separation rate rose from 5.69 to 6.87 per 100 employees. The accession rate declined from 2.84 to 1.79 per 100 employees during the same period.

Fewer quits and discharges were reported in November 1937 than in the corresponding month in 1936. The smaller number of quits and discharges, however was offset by a greater number of lay-offs. This caused the total separation rate to rise above the rate shown in November 1936.

To what extent all factory workers are affected by reduced production schedules cannot be determined, as some establishments have adopted a policy of working their employees in alternate shifts, thereby giving all employees on the pay roll some work during the month; other companies have reduced the number of weekly working days, while others have given their workers furloughs and still retain them on the pay roll. This variation in policy interferes with complete comparability in reports received and causes some distortion in the general lay-off rate.

All Manufacturing

The Bureau of Labor Statistics survey of labor turn-over covers more than 5,000 representative manufacturing establishments which, in November, employed over 2,500,000 workers. The rates represent the number of changes in personnel per 100 employees on the pay rolls during the month.

The rates shown in table 1 are compiled from reports received from representative plants in 144 industries. In the 20 industries for which separate rates are shown (see table 2) reports were received from representative plants employing at least 25 percent of the workers in each industry.

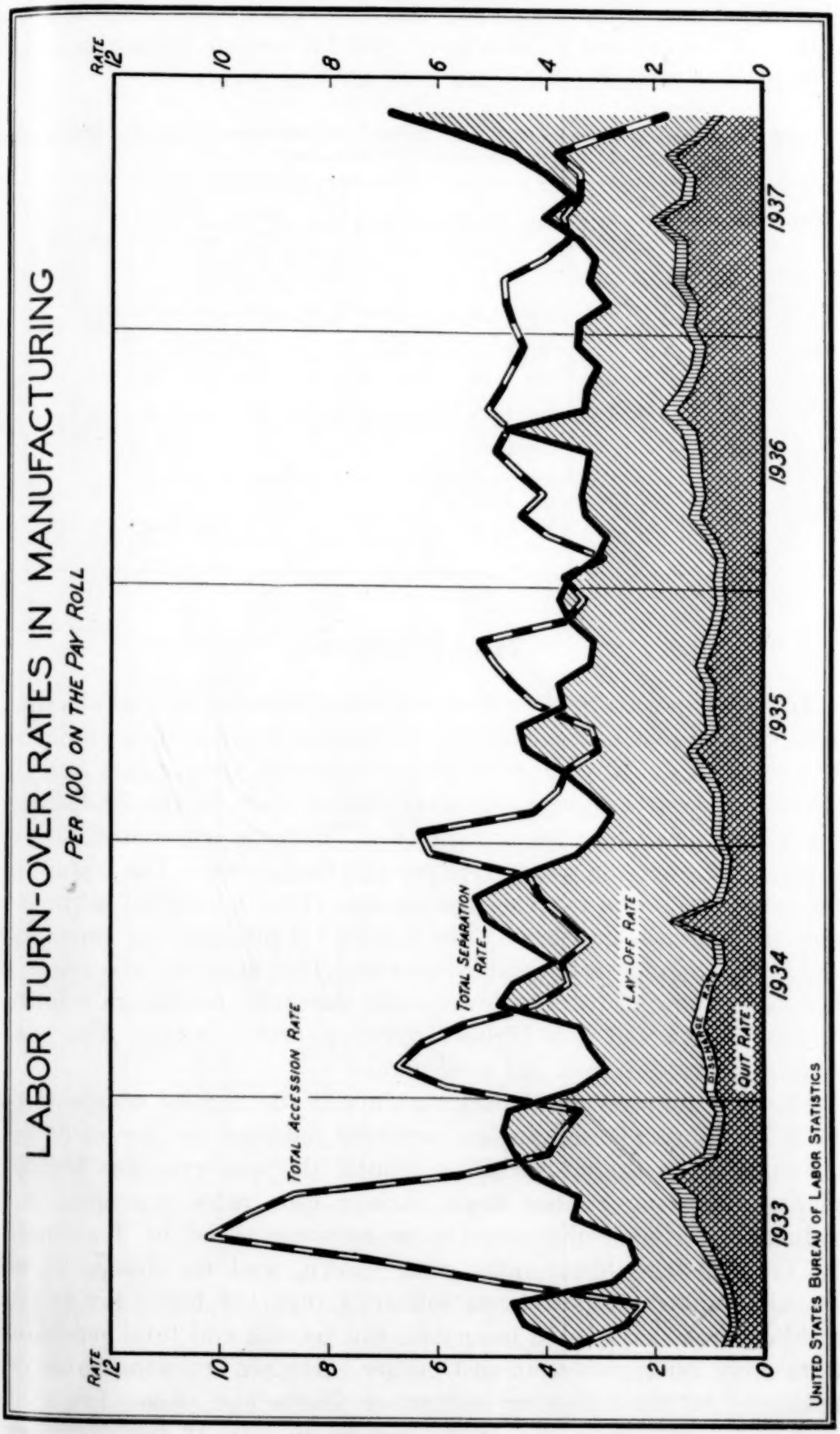
LABOR TURN-OVER RATES IN MANUFACTURING
PER 100 ON THE PAY ROLL
RATE
12
10
8
6
4
2
0
TOTAL ACCESSION RATE
TOTAL SEPARATION RATE
LAY-OFF RATE
QUIT RATE
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

Table 1 shows the total separation rate broken down into quit, discharge, and lay-off rates and the accession rate for each month of 1936 and for the first 11 months of 1937 for manufacturing as a whole. The average monthly rates for 1936 are also presented.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Representative Factories in 144 Industries*

Class of rate and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
Quit rate:													
1937	1.27	1.19	1.43	1.38	1.37	1.89	1.25	1.23	1.59	1.05	0.72		
1936	.71	.68	.86	1.16	1.06	1.13	1.15	1.23	1.57	1.29	1.13	1.05	1.09
Discharge rate:													
1937	.21	.22	.24	.23	.21	.19	.21	.19	.19	.19	.16		
1936	.20	.17	.19	.21	.20	.23	.23	.27	.26	.24	.21	.22	.22
Lay-off rate: [1]													
1937	1.90	1.44	1.53	1.48	1.79	1.94	2.06	2.57	2.84	4.45	5.99		
1936	2.66	2.21	1.83	1.92	2.06	1.92	1.84	3.23	1.47	1.72	1.70	2.14	2.06
Total separation rate:													
1937	3.38	2.85	3.20	3.09	3.37	4.02	3.52	3.99	4.62	5.69	6.87		
1936	3.57	3.06	2.88	3.29	3.32	3.28	3.22	4.73	3.30	3.25	3.04	3.41	3.37
Accession rate:													
1937	4.60	4.71	4.74	4.04	3.56	3.69	3.36	3.36	3.78	2.84	1.79		
1936	3.65	2.95	3.97	4.46	4.05	4.49	4.94	4.72	5.09	4.83	4.60	4.41	4.35

[1] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

Twenty Industries

In addition to turn-over rates for manufacturing as a whole, details of labor turn-over are available for 20 separate manufacturing industries.

Turn-over in November in plants manufacturing cigars and cigarettes appears to have been lower than in any of the 20 industries for which separate rates are shown. The total separation rate was 2.36 and the accession rate 1.45 per 100 employees. The highest lay-off rate (19.37) and total separation rate (20.60) occurred in the radio and phonograph industry. The lowest lay-off rate was reported in the cigar and cigarette establishments. This industry also registered the highest quit rate; the lowest was shown in petroleum refineries. Sawmills reported the highest discharge rate (0.25). The lowest (0.04) occurred in iron and steel plants.

Slaughtering and meat packing showed the highest accession rate (7.74). Plants manufacturing hardware reported the lowest (0.38).

Compared with the preceding month, the quit rate was higher in plants producing rubber tires. Lower quit rates prevailed in 19 industries. Higher discharge rates were indicated in 2 industries. In 17 industries lower rates were shown, and no change in one. Rayon plants and petroleum refineries reported fewer lay-offs and total separations. In 18 industries the lay-offs and total separations were more numerous than in October. Higher accession rates were indicated in the following industries: Boots and shoes, brick, tile, and terra cotta, iron and steel, and rayon. In 16 instances lower accession rates were reported.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Specified Industries*

Class of rates	November 1937	October 1937	November 1936	November 1937	October 1937	November 1936	November 1937	October 1937	November 1936
	Automobiles and bodies			Automobile parts			Boots and shoes		
Quit	0.63	0.96	2.12	0.70	1.13	2.09	0.62	0.84	0.85
Discharge	.14	.15	.33	.18	.34	.66	.10	.13	.20
Lay-off	11.09	2.33	2.03	13.71	4.00	1.54	8.36	5.52	3.66
Total separation	11.86	3.44	4.48	14.59	5.47	4.29	9.08	6.49	4.71
Accession	2.96	8.26	10.79	2.13	7.03	13.21	2.75	1.59	2.42
	Brick, tile, and terra cotta			Cigars and cigarettes			Cotton manufacturing		
Quit	0.62	0.96	1.35	1.36	1.38	1.45	0.81	1.16	1.25
Discharge	.14	.20	.17	.12	.14	.15	.15	.20	.23
Lay-off	10.22	9.32	4.10	.88	.40	2.47	5.62	5.01	1.16
Total separation	10.98	10.48	5.62	2.36	1.92	4.07	6.58	6.37	2.64
Accession	3.62	2.51	5.51	1.45	3.31	2.18	1.64	3.10	4.51
	Electrical machinery			Foundries and machine shops			Furniture		
Quit	0.55	0.84	0.81	0.51	0.87	1.08	0.71	1.76	1.43
Discharge	.22	.22	.17	.18	.22	.29	.19	.30	.42
Lay-off	5.33	4.06	.52	5.93	4.40	1.31	11.16	5.49	2.91
Total separation	6.10	5.12	1.50	6.62	5.49	2.63	12.06	7.55	4.76
Accession	.83	1.36	4.91	1.07	1.56	4.47	3.09	3.68	4.36
	Hardware			Iron and steel			Knit goods		
Quit	0.50	0.90	1.33	1.00	1.62	1.33	1.00	1.09	0.92
Discharge	.12	.15	.34	.04	.09	.07	.10	.12	.08
Lay-off	5.85	2.98	.56	6.68	3.66	.77	3.21	2.29	1.33
Total separtion	6.47	4.03	2.23	7.72	5.37	2.17	4.31	3.50	2.33
Accession	.38	3.32	6.60	1.05	.73	2.22	1.66	2.29	1.88
	Men's clothing			Petroleum refining			Radios and phonographs		
Quit	0.68	0.87	0.66	0.28	0.53	0.47	1.06	1.29	(1)
Discharge	.06	.03	.09	.06	.07	.12	.17	.24	----
Lay-off	10.03	6.32	2.16	2.70	3.62	2.41	19.37	11.53	----
Total separation	10.77	7.22	2.91	3.04	4.22	3.00	20.60	13.06	----
Accession	1.91	3.70	3.71	1.95	2.45	2.53	1.32	1.80	----
	Rayon			Rubber tires			Sawmills		
Quit	0.57	0.81	1.02	0.81	0.53	0.90	1.07	2.25	1.17
Discharge	.13	.43	.31	.06	.07	.11	.25	.26	.24
Lay-off	4.42	9.43	.19	7.41	5.45	.19	13.00	10.21	7.89
Total separation	5.12	10.67	1.52	8.28	6.05	1.20	14.32	12.72	9.30
Accession	1.44	.91	2.64	.66	.67	3.64	2.88	3.02	3.08
	Slaughtering and meat packing			Woolen and worsted goods					
Quit	0.64	0.68	1.55	0.59	0.74	0.86	----	----	----
Discharge	.20	.18	.31	.07	.09	.07	----	----	----
Lay-off	7.64	5.56	4.22	13.07	5.83	1.13	----	----	----
Total separation	8.48	6.42	6.08	13.73	6.66	2.06	----	----	----
Accession	7.74	8.37	11.56	2.60	3.68	9.72	----	----	----

[1] No data available.

LAWS LIMITING HOURS OF EMPLOYMENT FOR MEN, AS OF JANUARY 1, 1938

LEGISLATION regulating the hours of labor of employees has been adopted in all of the States. The most general type of enactment is that limiting the hours of employment of women and minors. Although the regulation of the working time of men has been of slower development in the United States, several States have undertaken to extend the field to additional classes of employment during the past 2 years.

Legislation limiting the hours of labor was early upheld by the courts as a valid exercise of the legislative power of the State to protect the health and morals of its citizens. The constitutionality of such legislation affecting woman employees has been firmly settled. However, the courts have viewed this type of legislation for men with uncertainty. In such cases the purpose of the restriction and the type of employees covered have usually been the deciding factor. Hours legislation has been upheld where it has applied to men engaged on public works, in private employments where public safety was directly affected, and in those employments considered dangerous or unhealthy to the workmen.

As a result of legislation enacted in 1937, two comprehensive laws regulating the hours of labor of men in private employment are in effect for the first time. The Pennsylvania Legislature, by Act No. 567, has limited the employment of men to 44 hours a week. The act also provides an 8-hour day and 5½-day week. The law is not applicable to agricultural labor, domestic servants in private homes, or persons over 21 years of age earning $25 a week or more in executive positions or in professional work. North Carolina, by an act passed in 1937 (ch. 409), has limited the hours of labor of men to 10 a day and 55 a week. There are, however, numerous exceptions, and the law is not applicable to an employer of eight or fewer employees. The Utah Legislature proposed (by H. J. Res. No. 1) an amendment to the State constitution which would authorize the regulation of hours of labor in factories; this amendment will be voted on at the next general election. In this State the law providing for an 8-hour day for men employed in mines was amended in 1937 by chapter 59,

specifying that the 8-hour period must be computed from the time the men leave the surface until they return. The hours of employment of pharmacists were limited in Colorado (ch. 165) so as not to exceed an average of 9 hours a day and not more than 108 hours in any 2 consecutive weeks.

Laws regulating hours of labor generally exempt agricultural and domestic labor. However, in 1937 the Legislature of Washington passed a law providing that the hours of labor of domestic employees may not exceed 60 hours a week. The Puerto Rico law, passed in 1935, regulates the hours of labor of employees in agricultural as well as commercial and industrial establishments.

The following tabulation shows the legal restrictions on the hours of labor of men (but not including bus or truck drivers) as of January 1, 1938.[1] Although the table in general covers only legislation affecting private employments, it also includes (under Federal legislation) those laws enacted by the United States regulating the hours of labor of persons employed on public works. Again, it does not cover rules or regulations of State labor departments, which in some States have the force and effect of law, nor legislation in States that have adopted codes of fair competition, similar to those established under the former National Industrial Recovery Act.

State and Territorial Restrictions on Hours of Labor of Men in Private Employments

Jurisdiction	Maximum hours		Occupations or industries covered	Citation
	Daily	Weekly		
Alaska	8	-------	Underground mines	Comp. L., 1933, sec. 2132.
Arizona	8	-------	Certain employees in mines and smelters	Rev. Code, 1928, sec. 1354.
	8	-------	Mines, smelters, reduction works, stamp mills, concentrating mills, chlorinating processes, cyanide processes, cement works, rolling mills, rod-mills, coke ovens, blast furnaces.	Idem, sec. 1356.
	8	-------	Certain employees in electric light and power plants.	Idem, sec. 1357.
	8	48	Laundry employees	Idem, sec. 1358.
	[1] 16	-------	Certain railroad employees	Idem, sec. 4707.
Arkansas	8	-------	Railroad telegraph and telephone operators	Digest, 1921, sec. 7080.
	10	-------	Saw and planing mills	Idem, secs. 7082, 7083, 7084.
	[2] 16	-------	Certain railroad employees	Idem, sec. 7077.
California	8	-------	Underground workings, mines, smelters, etc.	Deering's Gen. L. 1931, Act No. 4933, sec. 1.
	9	([3])	Drug clerks	Idem, Act No. 5887, secs. 1 and 2.
	[4] 16	-------	Certain railway employees	Idem, Act No. 6479, sec. 1.
	[5] 13	-------	Telegraph or telephone dispatchers of trains	Do.
	12	-------	Employees on streetcars	Deering's Pol. Code, 1931, sec. 3246.

See footnotes at end of table.

[1] For earlier analyses, see issues of January 1929 (p. 16); January 1933 (p. 1); April 1934 (p. 831); and April 1936 (p. 1060).

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	8	.....	Certain employees in electric light and power plants.	Idem, sec. 1357.
	8	48	Laundry employees	Idem, sec. 1358.
	[1] 16	.....	Certain railroad employees	Idem, sec. 4707.
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	10	.....	Saw and planing mills	Idem, secs. 7082, 7083, 7084.
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State and Territorial Restrictions on Hours of Labor of Men in Private Employments—Continued

Jurisdiction	Maximum hours		Occupations or industries covered	Citation
	Daily	Weekly		
Colorado	8		Underground workings and mines, smelters, reduction works, stamp mills, concentrating mills, chlorinating processes, cyanide processes, and coke ovens.	Stat. 1935, ch. 97, sec. 101.
	8		Cement and plaster manufacturing plants	Idem, ch. 97, sec. 115.
	[6] 16		Certain railroad employees	Idem, ch. 139, sec. 81.
	9	[7] 108	Pharmacists	Acts of 1937, ch. 165.
Connecticut	[8] 8		Railway telegraph or telephone operators and train dispatchers.	Gen. Stat., 1930, sec. 3748.
Florida	[9] 13		Employees operating trains	Comp. Gen. L., 1927, sec. 6595.
Georgia	10	60	Cotton and woolen mills except engineers, firemen, watchmen, mechanics, teamsters, yard employees, clerical forces, cleaners, repairmen.	Code, 1933, sec. 54-201.
	[10] 13		Employees operating train	Idem, sec. 18-106.
Idaho	8		Underground workings and mines, smelters, ore-reduction works, stamp mills, concentrators, and other ore-refining establishments.	Code, 1932, secs. 43-704 (as amended 1935, ch. 74) to 43-706.
Indiana	[11] 16		Certain railroad employees	Burn's Ann. Stat., 1926, sec. 13061.
Iowa	[12] 16		do	Code, 1931, sec. 7984.
Kansas	8		Lead and zinc mines	Gen. Stat., 1935 secs. 49-282, 49-283.
	[2] 16		Certain railroad employees	Idem, sec. 66-601.
Louisiana	[13] 10		Employees of street railroads	Dart's Gen. Stat., 1932, sec. 8173.
	[14] 8		Compressed air	Acts of 1934, no. 71.
Maine	[14] 8		do	Acts of 1931, ch. 164.
Maryland	8		Railway telegraph or telephone operators	Ann. Code, 1924, art. 23, sec. 260.
	10		Cotton and woolen mills	Idem, art. 100, sec. 1.
	10		Employees in tobacco warehouses in Baltimore [15]	Idem, art. 48, sec. 15.
	10		Employees in mines of Allegany and Garrett Counties.	Public Local Laws of Md., 1930 (Garrett County), sec. 390, p. 2821.
Massachusetts	[16] 9 in 11.		Certain street- or elevated-railway employees	Gen. L., 1932, ch. 161, sec. 103.
Michigan	[16] 10 in 12.		Operators of steam, surface, and elevated railroads.	Comp. L., 1929, sec. 8492.
Minnesota	[17] 16		Certain railway employees	Mason's Stat., 1927, sec. 4092.
	[18] 14		Locomotive engineers and firemen	Idem. sec. 4091.
Mississippi	10		Mill, cannery, workshop, factory, or manufacturing establishment.	Code, 1930, sec. 4646.
Missouri	8		Mining, mechanical, chemical, manufacturing or smelting, plate-glass manufacturing.	Rev. Stat., 1929, secs. 13206, 13208, 13622.
	9		Operators in interlocking towers	Idem, sec. 4851.
Montana	8		Hoisting engineers, underground mines or tunnels, stamp mills, concentrators, or smelters for treatment of ores.	Rev. Codes 1935, secs. 3068, 3071, 3072, 3073.
	9		Telephone switchboards in cities and towns with population of 3,000 or over.	Idem, sec. 3074.
	[11] 16		Certain railroad employees	Idem, sec. 3081.
	8		Strip mining	Idem, sec. 3546.8.
	8		Cement plants, quarries, and hydroelectric dams	Idem, sec. 3083.1.
	8		Sugar refineries	Do.
	8	48	Retail stores in cities and towns having a population of 2,500 or over.	Idem, sec. 3073.1.
Nebraska	[4] 16		Employees of certain common carriers	Comp. Stat. 1929, sec. 74-902.
	[5] 13		Telegraph or telephone dispatchers of trains	Idem, sec. 74-902.
Nevada	8		Underground mines or workings of any kind; all workmen working around surface of such mines, in smelters, open mines, plaster and cement works.	Comp. L., 1929, secs. 2794, 10238, 10240, 10242.
	[4] 16		Employees of common carriers	Idem, sec. 6335.
	8		Railroad telephone or telegraph operators and all other persons dispatching trains.	Idem, sec. 6338.
New Jersey	[16] 12		Certain street-railway employees	Comp. Stat. 1910, p. 5008, sec. 57.
	[14] 8		Compressed air	Comp. Stat. Supp. 1911-24, sec. 107-140A (10).

See footnotes at end of table.

State and Territorial Restrictions on Hours of Labor of Men in Private Employments—Continued

Jurisdiction	Maximum hours		Occupations or industries covered	Citation
	Daily	Weekly		
New Mexico	[4] 16		Certain railroad employees	Stat., 1929, sec. 116–724.
New York	[14] 8		Compressed air	Cahill's Consol. L., 1930, ch. 32, sec. 430.
		[19] 70	Apprentices or employees in pharmacies or drug stores.	Idem, ch. 15, sec. 1357.
	10		Brick yards	Idem, ch. 32, sec. 163.
	10		Street, surface, or elevated railroads	Idem, ch. 32, sec. 164.
	[4] 16		Steam or other railroads	Idem, ch. 32, sec. 165.
	8		Signalmen on railroads	Idem, ch. 32, sec. 166.
North Carolina	10	[20] 55	All employments [21]	Acts of 1937, chs. 406, 409.
North Dakota	[2] 16		Any railroad corporation or common carrier	Comp. L., 1913, sec. 4668.
	8		Coal mines or open-pit mines	Supp. (1925) to Comp. L. 1913. sec. 3084a88.
Ohio	[7] 15		Certain railway or street-railway employees	Page's Gen. Code, 1932, sec. 9007.
Oklahoma	8		In or about all coal mines	Stat., 1931, sec. 11112.
Oregon	10		Mill, factory, or manufacturing establishments	Code, 1930, sec. 49–602.
	8	48	Sawmills, planing mills, shingle mills, and logging camps.	Idem, sec. 49–602.
	8		Underground mines	Idem. sec. 49–604.
	[22] 14		Common carrier	Idem, sec. 62–1602.
	[23] 9		Telegraph operators or train dispatchers responsible for train movements.	Do.
	[6] 14		Conductor, engineer, fireman, brakeman, or flagman on steam railroad.	Code, 1930, sec. 62–1605.
Pennsylvania	8	44	All employments [24]	Acts of 1937, No. 567.
Puerto Rico	12		Certain railroad employees	Rev. Stat., 1911, sec. 1663.
	8		Employees in commercial, industrial, or agricultural establishments.	Acts of 1935 (Spec. sess.), No. 49.
Rhode Island	[13] 10		Certain street-railway employees	Gen. L., 1923, sec. 3661.
South Carolina	10	55	Cotton and woolen mills	Code, 1932, sec. 1466.
	12		Certain street-railway employees	Idem, sec. 1479.
	10		Interurban railway employees	Idem, sec. 1480.
South Dakota	[4] 16		Certain railroad employees	Comp. L. 1929, sec. 9715.
Texas	[4] 16		....do	Vernon's Stats., 1936, art. 6390 (p. 1174).
Utah	8		Underground workings and mines, smelters, and other institutions for the reduction of ores.	Rev. Stats. 1933, sec. 49–3–2 (as amended 1937, ch. 59).
Washington	10		Certain street-railway employees	Rem. Rev. Stat. 1931, sec. 7648.
	8		Coal mines	Idem, sec. 7654.
	10		Those employed in transporting men in and out of mines.	Idem, sec. 7656.
	[4] 16		Certain railroad employees	Idem, sec. 7652.
	8		Underground coal mines	Idem, sec. 8794.
		60	Domestic employees	Acts of 1937, ch. 129.
West Virginia	8		Telephone or telegraph operators on railroads	Code, 1931, ch. 21, art. 4, sec. 1.
Wisconsin	[4] 16		Certain railroad employees	Stat. 1935, sec. 192.24.
Wyoming	8		Underground mines, smelters, stamp mills, sampling works, concentration plants, and all other plants for reduction or refining of ores and metals.	Rev. Stat. 1931, secs. 63–103, 63–104.
United States	[25] 8		Underground workers on leased mineral lands of the United States.	U. S. Code, 1934, title 30, sec. 187.
	[4] 16		Persons engaged in or connected with the operations of trains in the District of Columbia or in interstate commerce.	Idem, title 45, sec. 62.
	[5] 13		Telegraph operators and train dispatchers	Idem, title 45, sec. 62.
	8		Railroad operating employees	Idem, title 45, sec. 65.
	[26] 8		Licensed officers and seamen	Idem, title 46, sec. 673 (as amended 1936, 49 Stat. L. 1933).
	8	40	[27]	Sup. II to U. S. Code, 1934, title 41, sec. 35.

See footnotes at end of table.

State and Territorial Restrictions on Hours of Labor of Men in Private Employments—Continued

Jurisdiction	Maximum hours		Occupations or industries covered	Citation
	Daily	Weekly		
United States	[28] 8	-------	Public works; rivers and harbors and harbor dredging.	U. S. Code, 1934, title 40, sec. 321.
	-------	30	Emergency public works	Idem, title 40, sec. 406.
	8	-------	Construction work in irrigation projects	Idem, title 43, sec. 419.
	8	-------	Underground workers on leased mineral lands of the United States in Alaska.	Idem, title 48, sec. 447.
	8	-------	Public works in Puerto Rico	Idem, title 48, sec. 737.
	-------	30	[29]	Idem, title 15, sec. 605b (6).

[1] Consecutive hours, after which 9 hours' rest.
[2] Consecutive hours, after which 8 hours' rest.
[3] 108 hours in any 2 consecutive weeks; employee must have 1 complete day's rest in 1 of such weeks and 2 half-day rest periods in the other week.
[4] Consecutive hours, after which 10 consecutive hours off duty. After an aggregate of 16 hours' work in a 24-hour period, 8 consecutive hours off duty.
[5] In towers operated only during day; maximum, 9 hours in towers operated night and day.
[6] Consecutive hours, after which 10 hours' rest.
[7] In 2 consecutive weeks, or not more than 13 days in such 2 consecutive weeks.
[8] In stations kept open only during day, 12 hours is the maximum.
[9] After an aggregate of 13 hours in a 24-hour period, 8 hours' rest is required.
[10] After an aggregate of 13 hours in a 24-hour period, 10 hours'rest is required.
[11] Consecutive hours, or an aggregate of 16 in 24 hours must be followed by 8 hours off duty.
[12] Consecutive hours, after which 10 hours' rest. More than 16 hours' labor in any consecutive 24 hours is also forbidden.
[13] To fall within 12 consecutive hours.
[14] Schedule prescribed, limiting hours in ratio to air pressure.
[15] Hours are limited from 7 a. m. until noon and from 1 p. m. until 6 p. m.
[16] Consecutive hours.
[17] Consecutive hours, after which 8 hours' rest. Also forbids more than 16 hours' work in any consecutive 24 hours.
[18] Consecutive hours, after which 9 hours' rest, or less if requested by said employees.
[19] Hours to be so arranged that employee shall receive 1 afternoon and evening off in each week, and also 1 full day off in 2 consecutive weeks.
[20] Nor more than 12 days in 14 consecutive days.
[21] Numerous occupations are exempted.
[22] Consecutive hours, after which 10 consecutive hours off duty. After an aggregate of 14 hours in any 24-hour period, 8 consecutive hours off duty.
[23] In a 24-hour period, in towers, etc., operated only in the daytime. In an emergency may work 4 additional hours each day, not exceeding 3 days per week.
[24] Does not apply to employment in agricultural occupations, or in domestic service in private homes, or to the work of persons over 21 earning at least $25 a week in bona fide executive positions, or learned professions.
[25] Provisions covering the hours of labor on public works are included.
[26] While in safe harbor no seaman shall be required to do any unnecessary work on Sunday or on certain legal holidays.
[27] Persons contracting to furnish to the United States materials, etc., valued at more than $10,000 must maintain an 8-hour day and a 40-hour week.
[28] Contracts for such work must provide for an 8-hour day.
[29] All loans made by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to finance self-liquidating projects must be subject to the condition that (except in executive, administrative, and supervisory positions) employees will not be permitted to work more than 30 hours a week.

WAGE DETERMINATIONS UNDER PUBLIC CONTRACTS LAW: WELT SHOES, GRANITE, AND HANDKERCHIEFS

WAGES were determined for three additional industries[1] in December 1937—men's welt shoes, the dimension-granite, and the handkerchief industry—under the powers conferred on the Secretary of Labor by the terms of the Walsh-Healey Act governing conditions on public contracts.[2]

[1] For earlier determinations see the Monthly Labor Review, September 1937 (p. 694).
[2] United States. The National Archives. Federal Register, Washington, December 24, 1937, p. 3417, December. 30, 1937, p. 3440, and January 12, 1938, p. 76.

The minimum for the men's welt-shoe industry was established on December 21, 1937, to take effect on or after 15 days from the date of the order. A minimum wage rate of 40 cents per hour or $16 per 40-hour week was determined as the prevailing rate on the basis of facts disclosed at a public hearing held by the Public Contracts Board. Evidence was presented by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor, the National Boot and Shoe Manufacturers Association, the Southern States Industrial Council, the Mississippi Valley Association, the Brotherhood of Shoe and Allied Craftsmen, the United Shoe Workers of America, and other representatives of employers, employees, and the public.

For the dimension-granite industry the determination was made on December 22, 1937, to become effective on all contracts awarded on or after January 15, 1938. Rates were fixed to include work on monumental stone, building stone, paving blocks, curbing, riprap, and rubble, but not crushed stone. The scales range from 57.5 to 32.5 cents per hour for a 40-hour week according to geographic area and are as follows:

(1) In Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York: 57.5 cents per hour or $23 per week, based on a 40-hour week arrived at either on a time or piece work basis.

(2) In Pennsylvania, Maryland, Wisconsin, Minnesota, South Dakota, and all other States not included in paragraph (1) above or paragraph (3) below: 42.5 cents per hour or $17 per week based on a 40-hour week arrived at either on a time or piece work basis.

(3) In North Carolina, Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Tennessee, Kentucky, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, and Texas: 32.5 cents per hour or $13 per week based on a 40-hour week arrived at either on a time or piece work basis.

As in other cases the determination was made only after a public hearing was held at which testimony was presented by representatives of the Granite Cutters International Association of America as well as by individual employers and employees. A special study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics was also presented.

The decision covering the handkerchief industry was dated January 10, 1938, to become effective on or after January 26, 1938. Minimum wages for employees engaged in the performance of handkerchief contracts are fixed at 35 cents per hour or $14 per week for a week of 40 hours.

Hearings were held to determine existing wage scales and information was also obtained from a special study presented by the Women's Bureau.

WAGES AND HOURS IN UNION BAKERIES MAY 15, 1937

THE average wage rate for union members in the bakery trades increased 5.1 percent between May 15, 1936, and May 15, 1937, according to reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from union officials in 43 cities.[1] The average in 1937 was 92.8 cents an hour while in 1936 it was 88.4 cents an hour. The average rate in Hebrew bakeries increased 3.1 percent and in other bakeries 6.1 percent between 1936 and 1937. In spite of the lower rate of increase, the 1937 average rate in Hebrew bakeries ($1.255) was more than 43 cents higher than in other bakeries (82.1 cents). Although Hebrew bakeries generally have higher rates, one reason for this large difference is the fact that a large proportion of the Hebrew bakeries are located in New York City, where the average of all rates is higher than in other localities.[2]

According to the wage classifications listed in table 1, the greatest proportion of union members in both years received rates of 70 and under 80 cents an hour. The proportion increased, however, from 18.6 in 1936 to 20.0 in 1937. Rates of 80 cents or higher were reported for 55.9 percent of the members in 1936 and 63.7 percent in 1937. More than a third of the members who were reported at rates of under 70 cents per hour in 1936 moved into higher brackets in 1937. The change in the total percentage below 70 cents per hour was from 25.5 in 1936 to 16.3 in 1937.

In 1937 the largest proportion of members working in Hebrew bakeries received rates of $1.30 and under $1.40 an hour; in other bakeries the largest proportion of members received 70 and under 80 cents. The higher rates in Hebrew bakeries is again indicated by the fact that, while rates of $1 and over were received by 35.8 percent of the union members in all bakeries, such rates were received by

[1] The percent of change and the averages are based on aggregates computed from 268 comparable quotations furnished by unions reporting for both years. These quotations covered 16,932 members. The membership weights in the aggregates used in each year are those reported for the second year. Including the 4,235 members for whom no 1936 rates were obtained, the 1937 average rate for all union bakers was 87.1 cents per hour. On the same basis the average hours for all members reported were 42.4 per week in 1937. See p. 473 for method and coverage of the study.

[2] Nearly 72 percent of the members covered in comparable reports for Hebrew bakeries were located in New York City. The average rate for these in 1937 was $1.296 as compared with $1.155 for those in all other cities.

85.0 percent of the members in Hebrew bakeries and by only 19.6 percent of those in other bakeries.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Union Members in the Bakery Trades, by Hourly Rates, 1936 and 1937* [1]

Classified hourly rates	All bakeries		Hebrew bakeries		Other bakeries	
	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936
Average hourly rate	$0.928	$0.884	$1.255	$1.218	$0.821	$0.774
Percent of members whose hourly rates were—						
Under 35 cents	-------	0.1	-------	-------	-------	0.1
35 and under 40 cents	0.1	1.3	-------	-------	0.2	1.7
40 and under 50 cents	2.3	3.1	0.1	0.2	3.0	4.1
50 and under 60 cents	4.8	9.1	.5	.6	6.2	11.9
60 and under 70 cents	9.1	11.9	.9	1.2	11.8	15.4
70 and under 80 cents	20.0	18.6	.6	1.1	26.5	24.3
80 and under 90 cents	12.0	11.2	1.5	2.4	15.4	14.1
90 and under $1.00	15.9	16.4	11.4	14.6	17.3	16.9
$1.00 and under $1.10	11.7	7.2	6.1	7.6	13.5	7.1
$1.10 and under $1.20	5.7	5.8	11.6	17.1	3.8	2.1
$1.20 and under $1.30	3.7	2.3	8.2	2.4	2.2	2.3
$1.30 and under $1.40	8.8	7.3	35.5	29.5	.1	(2)
$1.40 and under $1.50	5.9	5.7	23.6	23.3	(2)	-------

[1] Based on comparable quotations. See text footnote 1.
[2] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Two-thirds of the union members covered in both years studied received wage-rate increases, while only 0.2 percent received decreases. Almost one-third had no change in rates during the year. (See table 2.) While the proportion of quotations showing increases for members in Hebrew bakeries was much greater than for those in other shops, they were mostly confined to unions having small memberships. About 36 percent of the union membership in Hebrew bakeries received wage-rate increases, as compared with 78 percent in other bakeries. On the other hand, 64 percent of the union membership engaged in Hebrew bakeries received no change in wage rates during the year, as compared to 22 percent of the members in other bakeries.

TABLE 2.—*Changes in Union Wage Scales in the Bakery Trades, 1937 Compared With 1936*

Type of bakery	Number of quotations comparable with 1936	Wage rates per hour					
		Number of quotations showing—			Percent of members affected by—		
		Increase	Decrease	No change	Increase	Decrease	No change
All types	268	182	4	82	67.3	0.2	32.5
Hebrew bakeries	56	43	1	12	35.7	.1	64.2
Other bakeries	212	139	3	70	77.6	.2	22.2

Table 3 indicates that the largest number (77) of wage-rate changes between May 15, 1936, and May 15, 1937, were for increases of 5 to 10 percent. Such changes affected 27.5 percent of the union members covered in both years. Slightly over 18 percent of the members received increases amounting to less than 5 percent, while over 12

percent of the members received wage-rate increases of 10 to 15 percent. Several quotations showed increases of over 30 percent, one as high as 52 percent.

TABLE 3.—*Percentage Change in Union Wage Rates in the Bakery Trades Between 1936 and 1937*

Classified percentage rate change	Number of quotations showing—		Percent of total members affected by—	
	Increase	Decrease	Increase	Decrease
Less than 5 percent	33	4	18.1	0.2
5 and under 10 percent	77	----	27.5	----
10 and under 15 percent	39	----	12.4	----
15 and under 20 percent	13	----	4.1	----
20 and under 25 percent	9	----	2.5	----
25 and under 30 percent	6	----	2.2	----
30 percent and over	5	----	.5	----

In addition to the wage scales discussed above, there were 97 quotations received in 1937 which were nonexistent in 1936. These quotations, covering 4,231 members, represent agreements by new unions, new occupations covered for the first time by old unions, and unions which had for the first time made their scales effective. The average rate for these members was considerably lower than for those having effective scales in both years—64.0 cents per hour as compared with 92.8 cents per hour. The lower scales for these workers brought under union agreements for the first time in 1937 was due to the fact that many of them were for lower-paid occupations and also that a large proportion of them were located in smaller cities.

Union Scales of Hours

Full-time weekly hours of union members in the bakery trades for whom comparable reports were received decreased 1.6 percent between May 15, 1936, and May 15, 1937. The average hours in 1936 were 43.1, and in 1937 they were 42.4 per week. For Hebrew bakeries the change in average was from 45.9 to 45.1 and for other shops from 42.2 to 41.5.

The distribution of members covered in both years, according to the full-time hours provided in their agreements, appears in table 4. In both years more members worked a 40-hour week than worked any other scale. The proportion of the members, however, increased from 39.9 percent in 1936 to 44.1 percent in 1937. Over half of all the members were reported at hours of 40 or less per week in 1937; in 1936 the proportion was 46.1 percent.

The scales of hours in Hebrew bakeries were longer as a rule than in other types of shops. There was, however, the same tendency towards shorter hours. In 1936, 71.2 percent of the 4,180 members covered had a 45-hour week and none were reported at any less number

of hours. In 1937, the percentage on 45-hour scales was 78.1, with 6.6 percent of the members on 40- and 42-hour workweeks.

A majority of the members in other shops worked on 40-hour scales in both years. In 1937 there were increased percentages at 36, 40, 42, and 44 hours per week and decreased proportions at 45 and 48 hours. The relative decrease in the maximum workweek (48 hours) was not so great for these members as for those in Hebrew bakeries. In Hebrew bakeries the decline was from 28.3 percent to 14.8 percent during the year, a reduction of almost half the total members reported at 48 hours in 1936. About one-fourth of the members in other bakeries who had a 48-hour scale in 1936 changed to a shorter workweek during the year.

TABLE 4.—*Distribution of Union Members in the Bakery Trades, by Hours per Week 1937 and 1936* [1]

Classified weekly hours	All bakeries		Hebrew bakeries		Other bakeries	
	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936
Average weekly hours	42.4	43.1	45.1	45.9	41.5	42.2
Percent of members whose hours per week were—						
32 hours	0.7	0.7	----	----	0.9	0.9
35 hours	.4	.4	----	----	.5	.5
36 hours	6.6	5.1	----	----	8.7	6.8
40 hours	44.1	39.9	6.1	----	56.5	52.9
42 hours	5.8	3.4	.5	----	7.6	4.5
44 hours	4.2	2.2	----	----	5.6	2.9
45 hours	19.4	21.3	78.1	71.2	.2	5.0
47 hours	.1	.1	.5	.5	----	----
48 hours	18.7	26.9	14.8	28.3	20.0	26.5

[1] Based on comparable quotations. See text footnote 1.

For about 82 percent of the union membership there were no changes in hours between May 15, 1936, and May 15, 1937. (See table 5.) Slightly over 16 percent had their hours reduced, while 2 percent had increases in hours. A smaller proportion, 13.5 percent, of members in Hebrew bakeries received hour decreases than members in other shops, where 17 percent had their hours reduced.

TABLE 5.—*Changes in Union Hour Scales in the Bakery Trades, 1937 Compared With 1936*

Type of bakery	Number of quotations comparable with 1936	Hours per week					
		Number of quotations showing—			Percent of members affected by—		
		Increase	Decrease	No change	Increase	Decrease	No change
All types	268	12	36	220	2.0	16.2	81.8
Hebrew bakeries	56	----	11	45	----	13.5	86.5
Other bakeries	212	12	25	175	2.6	17.1	80.3

Table 6 indicates that most of the changes in hours were for reductions of 3, 4, and 8 hours per week, with almost equal proportions of the total memberships affected by each reduction. One-half of 1 percent of the membership received increases of 4 hours in their workweek. Three quotations, covering 1.5 percent of the membership, increased their workweek by 6 hours. These increases were from a 42- to a 48-hour week.

TABLE 6.—*Amount of Change in Union Hour Scales in the Bakery Trades Between 1936 and 1937*

Amount of change in hours per week	Number of quotations showing—		Percent of total members affected by—	
	Increase	Decrease	Increase	Decrease
3 hours	----------	11	----------	5.6
4 hours	8	11	0.5	5.5
6 hours	3	3	1.5	.1
8 hours	1	11	(1)	5.0

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Overtime and Extra Work

Almost half of the members received time and a half for overtime, and 23 percent additional received time and one-third. Work beyond the regular weekly hours was prohibited in agreements covering 10 percent of the members. The distribution of all the reports received according to the initial overtime rates was:

	Number of quotations	*Percent of members covered*
No overtime rate provided	5	1.1
Straight time	39	6.7
Time and one-third	84	23.4
Time and one-half	195	48.8
Double time	11	3.1
Specified amounts, not a multiple of the regular rate	28	7.1
Overtime prohibited	3	9.8

Frequently the agreements provide that no regularly employed member shall work overtime when substitutes are available, except in cases of emergency. In some cases a permit from the union must be secured before overtime may be worked. Other agreements set a limit on the amount of overtime permissible for each employee, usually a maximum of 2 hours per week. In a number of cases at least a certain number of hours, commonly 12, must elapse before an employee may be called to begin the next day's work.

Although in some agreements work on any holiday is prohibited, most agreements apply such prohibition only to labor holidays. Six holidays were provided in most cases, but the number varied from three to nine. The usual holidays observed are New Year's, Memo-

rial Day, Fourth of July, Labor Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas. Agreements for Hebrew bakeries generally provide for several religious holidays in addition to the legal holidays. The rate for work performed on the weekly day off and on holidays is in most cases the same as the overtime rate, although some provide for double pay for work on holidays. Some agreements provide full pay when holidays are observed.

Because of the necessity of night work to produce fresh goods for sale the following day, a provision for extra pay for night work is frequently found. The periods during which this extra pay applies begin between 6 and 10 p. m. and end between 4 and 6 a. m. The amount of the night bonus varies from an additional 5 cents an hour to 25 cents an hour.

A minimum of 5 or 6 hours or a full day's pay is at times provided for all those beginning a day's work.

Scope of the Survey and Membership Covered

This study is one of a series of annual surveys started in 1907 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, covering union scales in various trades in the principal cities of the United States. In recent years 70 cities have been included in the general survey, although in many of these cities there were no union members working under agreements in the bakery trades. Effective union scales for bakery workers were reported in 43 of the cities studied in 1936 and in 48 cities in 1937. The total union membership covered in 1937 was 21,167, as compared with 15,086 in 1936.

Table 8 shows the number of union members for whom reports have been received each year since 1918. The high point in membership covered was in 1920. From 1921 to 1933 there was a decline reported each year, except in 1930, when a small increase was recorded. Since 1933 there has been an increase each year, the 1937 membership being practically double that of 1933.

TABLE 8.—*Union Members in Bakery Trades Covered Each Year, 1918 to 1937*

Year	Members	Year	Members	Year	Members	Year	Members
1918	18,376	1923	21,574	1928	18,673	1933	10,960
1919	21,477	1924	21,306	1929	17,468	1934	12,722
1920	24,721	1925	20,805	1930	18,301	1935	14,418
1921	24,398	1926	20,510	1931	16,403	1936	15,086
1922	22,808	1927	19,170	1932	13,678	1937	21,167

Rates of Wages and Hours in Each City

Union rates per hour and hours per week in the bakery trades, by city and occupation, on May 15, 1937, and May 15, 1936, are shown in table 9.

TABLE 9.—*Union Scales of Wages and Hours in the Bakery Trades, May 15, 1937, and May 15, 1936*

City, type of bakery, and occupation	May 15, 1937		May 15, 1936	
	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week
Atlanta, Ga.				
Dough mixers	Dol. 0.550	40	------	------
Bakers	.500	40	------	------
Bakers' helpers	.400	40	------	------
Packers or slicers, female	.350	40	------	------
Baltimore, Md.				
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen or ovenmen	1.188	48	1.188	48
Second hands	1.125	48	1.125	48
Boston, Mass.				
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen	1.271	48	1.146	48
Second hands	1.167	48	1.042	48
Third hands	1.063	48	.938	48
Buffalo, N. Y.				
Day work:				
Ovenmen or mixers	.729	48	.667	48
Bench hands	.688	48	.625	48
Night work:				
Ovenmen or mixers	.771	48	.708	48
Bench hands	.729	48	.667	48
Hebrew and Polish bakeries:				
First hands	.773	48	------	------
Second hands	.729	48	------	------
Butte, Mont.[1]				
Foremen or mixers	1.091	44	1.091	44
Bench hands or ovenmen	.955	44	.955	44
Chicago, Ill.				
Retail bakeries:				
First hands	[2] .771	48	.771	48
Second hands	[2] .729	48	.729	48
Wholesale bakeries:				
First hands, ovenmen, or spongers	.780	40	.730	40
Second hands	.740	40	.690	40
Bohemian bakeries:				
Small shops:				
First hands	.729	48	.667	48
Second hands	.667	48	.604	48
Large shops:				
First hands	.875	40	.800	40
Second hands	.800	40	.725	40
Polish bakeries:				
Retail shops:				
Foremen or spongers	.875	48	------	------
Second hands	.750	48	------	------
Wholesale shops:				
Foremen or spongers	.968	32	.938	32
Second hands	.844	32	.817	32
Scandinavian bakeries:				
First hands, spongers, or ovenmen	[3] .900	48	.900	42
Second hands	[3] .850	48	.850	42
Helpers	[3] .550	48	.550	42
Cincinnati, Ohio				
Foremen or first hands	Dol. 0.945	40	Dol. 0.920	40
Bench or machine hands	.800	40	.775	40
Ovenmen or mixers	.863	40	.838	40
Helpers	.625	40	.600	40
Cleveland, Ohio				
Union A:				
First hands	.833	48	.750	48
Second hands	.750	48	.625	48
Helpers	.667	48	.563	48
Union B:				
Hand shops:				
First hands	.792	48	.750	48
Second hands	.729	48	.688	48
Third hands	.604	48	.563	48
Machine shops:				
Mixers or ovenmen	.770	40	.750	40
Bench or machine hands	.710	40	.690	40
Mixer helpers or molders and dividers	.660	40	.640	40
Oven feeders	.600	40	.580	40
Helpers, male	.550	40	.530	40
Helpers, female	.400	40	.390	40
Slicers, female	.490	40	.470	40
Bohemian bakeries:				
First hands	.792	48	.750	48
Second hands	.750	48	.708	48
Third hands	.646	48	.625	48
Hebrew bakeries:				
First hands	1.146	48	1.042	48
Second hands	1.042	48	.938	48
Third hands	.563	48	.500	48
Dallas, Tex.				
Hand shops:				
Foremen	.729	48	.667	48
Ovenmen or mixers	.583	48	.500	48
Bench hands	.542	48	.458	48
Davenport, Iowa				
See Rock Island (Ill.) district.				
Denver, Colo.				
Hand shops:				
Day work:				
Foremen	.857	[4] 42	.857	42
Bench or machine hands	.714	[4] 42	.714	42
Night work:				
Foremen	.929	[4] 42	.929	42
Machine hands	.786	[4] 42	.786	42
Machine shops:				
Day work:				
Shift foremen	.875	[4] 40	.875	40
Mixers or ovenmen	.800	[4] 40	.800	40
Bench or machine hands	.750	[4] 40	.750	40

[1] After June 1, 1937: Foremen and mixers, $1.179; benchmen, $1.048; ovenmen, $1.143; 42-hour week.
[2] 10 cents per hour more for work between 10 p. m. and 4 a. m. Scale increased $3 per week after June 1, 1937.
[3] 20 cents per hour more for work between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m.
[4] Overtime limited to 1 hour per week.

TABLE 9.—*Union Scales of Wages and Hours in the Bakery Trades, May 15, 1937, and May 15, 1936*—Continued

City, type of bakery, and occupation	May 15, 1937		May 15, 1936	
	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week
Denver, Colo.—Contd.				
Machine shops—Contd.				
Night work:	*Dol.*		*Dol.*	
Shift foremen	0.950	[4] 40	0.950	40
Mixers or ovenmen	.875	[4] 40	.875	40
Bench or machine hands	.825	[4] 40	.825	40
Part day and part night work:				
Shift foremen	.913	[4] 40	.913	40
Mixers or ovenmen	.838	[4] 40	.838	40
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen or ovenmen	.940	48	.854	48
Second hands	.894	48	.813	48
Bench hands	.871	48	.792	48
Helpers	.653	48	.594	48
Des Moines, Iowa				
Hand shops:				
Foremen	.677	48	.625	48
Journeymen	.604	48	.563	48
Helpers	.458	48	.417	48
Machine shops:				
Foremen	.800	40	.750	40
Ovenmen or mixers	.700	40	.650	40
Benchmen	.650	40	.600	40
Machine men	.600	40	.550	40
Helpers	.500	40	.450	40
Bread wrappers	.450	40	.400	40
Detroit, Mich.				
Union A:				
First hands, mixers, or ovenmen	.800	44	.750	48
Second hands or benchmen	.700	44	.667	48
Helpers, male	.600	44	------	------
Helpers, female	.450	44	------	------
Union B:				
First hands, mixers, or ovenmen	.958	48	.813	48
Second hands or benchmen	.813	48	.708	48
Third hands	.521	48	------	------
Hebrew bakeries:				
First hands, night:				
1 oven	1.356	45	1.356	45
2 ovens	1.400	45	1.400	45
Second hands	1.289	45	1.289	45
Third hands	.625	48	------	------
Duluth, Minn.				
Foremen	.910	40	.693	44
Bench hands	.750	40	.591	44
Mixers or ovenmen	.800	40	.614	44
Machine men	.688	40	------	------
Helpers, after 1 year [5]	.625	40	------	------
Houston, Tex.				
Foremen	[6] .729	48	.729	48
Mixers, ovenmen, or spongers	[6] .573	48	.573	48
Houston, Tex.—Contd.				
Bench men or machine men	*Dol.* [5] 0.531	48	*Dol.* 0.521	48
Wrappers	[6] .396	48	------	------
Counters	[6] .438	48	------	------
Helpers	[6] .375	48	.375	48
Kansas City, Mo.				
Day work:				
Foremen	1.063	40	.979	40
Mixers, spongers, or ovenmen and drawers	.975	40	.896	40
Bench hands	.913	40	.834	40
Night work:				
Foremen	1.188	40	1.104	40
Mixers, spongers, or ovenmen and drawers	1.100	40	1.021	40
Bench and under hands	1.038	40	.959	40
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen	.989	45	------	------
Mixers and drawers	.911	45	------	------
Bench hands	.856	45	------	------
Los Angeles, Calif.				
Hebrew bakeries:				
First hands	1.313	[7] 40	1.188	48
Second hands	1.188	[7] 40	1.063	48
Madison, Wis.				
Foremen	[8] .938	48	.883	40
Bench hands	[8] .784	40	.765	40
Mixers, ovenmen, or spongers	[8] .837	40	.819	40
Machine men	[8] .812	40	------	------
Helpers	[8] .675	40	.625	40
Manchester, N. H.				
Foremen or mixers	.792	48	.792	48
Bench hands	.625	48	.625	48
Second hands	.688	48	.688	48
Memphis, Tenn.				
Mixers, ovenmen, second hands, bench hands, machine men, or wrapping-machine operators	.563	40	------	------
Helpers	.375	40	------	------
Milwaukee, Wis.				
Hand bakeries:				
Foremen	.682	44	------	------
Mixers or ovenmen	.625	44	------	------
Bench hands	.568	44	------	------
Helpers	.455	44	------	------
Machine bakeries:				
Foremen	.950	40	------	------
Mixers or ovenmen	.750	40	------	------
Bench hands	.688	40	------	------
Helpers	.550	40	------	------

[4] Overtime limited to 1 hour per week.
[5] 50 cents per hour for first 6 months, 55 cents per hour for second 6 months.
[6] 1 week's vacation and 4 holidays per year with full pay.
[7] Agreement provides 48 hours; members limited to 40 to share work.
[8] 10 cents per hour more for night work.

TABLE 9.—*Union Scales of Wages and Hours in the Bakery Trades, May 15, 1937, and May 15, 1936*—Continued

City, type of bakery, and occupation	May 15, 1937		May 15, 1936	
	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week
***Milwaukee, Wis.*—Con.**				
Hebrew bakeries:				
Day work:				
Bench hands, first	*Dol.* 0.872	47	*Dol.* 0.809	47
Bench hands, second	.787	47	.723	47
Bench hands, third	.702	47	.638	47
Night work:				
Bench hands, first	.896	47	------	------
Bench hands, second	.813	47	------	------
Bench hands, third	.728	47	------	------
Minneapolis, Minn.				
Hand shops:				
Foremen	.800	45	------	------
Mixers, ovenmen, spongers, or traveling-oven operators	.667	45	------	------
Bench hands	.622	45	------	------
Oven helpers	.533	45	------	------
Helpers, female	.489	45	------	------
Machine shops:				
Foremen	.900	44	------	------
Mixers, ovenmen, spongers, or traveling-oven operators	.750	44	------	------
Bench hands or divider men	.700	44	------	------
Dough-room men	.650	44	------	------
Oven helpers or ingredient scalers	.600	44	------	------
Bench-hand helpers	.550	44	------	------
Moline, Ill.				
See Rock Island (Ill.) district.				
Nashville, Tenn.				
Foremen	.729	48	------	------
Ovenmen	.573	48	------	------
Mixers or wrapping-room foremen	.521	48	------	------
Bench or machine hands	.469	48	------	------
Machine operators	.396	48	------	------
Helpers	.354	48	------	------
Newark, N. J.				
Union A:				
Foremen, ovenmen or mixers	1.050	40	1.000	40
Bench hands	.925	40	.875	40
Third hands	.775	40	.725	40
Union B:				
First hands or ovenmen	1.458	48	1.333	48
Second hands or benchmen	1.325	48	1.200	48
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen or ovenmen	1.354	48	1.250	48
Mixers or second hands	1.250	48	1.146	48
New Haven, Conn.				
Foremen or mixers	*Dol.* 0.750	48	*Dol.* 0.750	48
Ovenmen	.713	48	.713	48
Benchmen	.675	48	.675	48
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen or ovenmen	1.083	48	1.000	48
Second hands	1.000	48	.917	48
Third hands or helpers	.625	48	.417	48
New York, N. Y.				
Union A:				
First hands or ovenmen	.950	40	.950	40
Second hands	.850	40	.850	40
Third hands or helpers	.750	40	.750	40
Union B:				
Ovenmen	.925	40	------	------
Bench hands	.825	40	------	------
Junior bench hands or packers	.725	40	------	------
Helpers	.625	40	------	------
Wrappers	.575	40	------	------
Helpers, female	.450	40	------	------
Union C:				
First hands	1.050	40	1.021	48
Second hands	.950	40	.938	48
Helpers	.750	40	.750	48
Union D:				
Foremen	1.250	[1] 40	1.250	40
First hands	1.050	[1] 40	1.050	40
Second hands	.950	[1] 40	.950	40
Helpers	.700	[1] 40	.700	40
Bohemian bakeries:				
First hands	1.000	35	1.000	35
Second hands	.929	35	.929	35
French bakeries:				
Day work:				
First hands	.933	45	.875	48
Second hands	.889	45	.833	48
Third hands or helpers	.844	45	.792	48
Night work:				
First hands	1.000	42	.933	45
Second hands	.952	42	.889	45
Third hands or helpers	.905	42	.884	45
German bakeries:				
First hands	1.000	40	.979	48
Second hands	.938	40	.917	48
Helpers	.625	40	.521	48
Hebrew bakeries:				
Union A:				
First hands or ovenmen	1.333	45	1.125	48
Second hands	1.200	45	1.063	48
Third hands or helpers	.933	45	.813	48
Union B:				
Mixers or ovenmen	1.125	40	------	------
First hands	1.188	40	1.146	48
Second hands	1.025	40	.979	48
Helpers	.800	40	.750	48
Union C:				
First hands	1.467	45	1.467	45
Second hands	1.333	45	1.333	45
Helpers	.933	45	.933	45

[1] Overtime limited to 2 hours per week.

TABLE 9.—*Union Scales of Wages and Hours in the Bakery Trades, May 15, 1937, and May 15, 1936*—Continued

City, type of bakery, and occupation	May 15, 1937		May 15, 1936	
	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week
Oklahoma City, Okla.				
Day work:				
Foremen	Dol. 0.900	40	Dol. 0.825	40
Mixers or ovenmen	.800	40	.725	40
Bench or machinemen	.700	40	.625	40
Night work:				
Foremen	1.025	40	.950	40
Mixers or ovenmen	.875	40	.800	40
Bench and machinemen	.775	40	.700	40
Peoria, Ill.				
Machine shops:				
Foremen	.952	42	.929	42
Ovenmen or spongers	.833	42	.810	42
Bench or machine hands	.762	42	.738	42
Philadelphia, Pa.				
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen or ovenmen	1.249	45	1.190	45
Second hands or mixers	1.190	45	1.133	45
Third hands	1.091	45	1.039	45
Fourth hands	.694	45	.661	45
Pittsburgh, Pa.				
Mixers or ovenmen	.800	40	.750	40
Benchmen	.750	40	.700	40
Helpers	.650	40	.590	40
Checkers	.600	40	.535	40
Packers	.530	40	.430	40
Hebrew bakeries:				
First hands or ovenmen	1.422	45	1.333	45
Second hands or mixers	1.356	45	1.267	45
Third hands or benchmen	1.267	45	1.178	45
Polish bakeries:				
First hands	.933	45	------	------
Second hands	.889	45	------	------
Third hands	.844	45	------	------
Helpers	.556	45	------	------
Portland, Oreg.				
Hand shops:				
Foremen	1.050	40	------	------
Mixers or ovenmen	1.000	40	------	------
Bench hands	.900	40	------	------
Machine shops:				
Foremen	1.111	36	.875	40
Mixers or ovenmen	1.056	36	.840	40
Bench or machine hands	1.000	36	.800	40
Flour blenders	.833	36	------	------
Pan greasers	.778	36	------	------
Providence, R. I.				
Foremen or ovenmen	.938	48	.938	48
Second hands, mixers, or benchmen	.875	48	.875	48
Rochester, N. Y.				
Hand shops:				
Foremen or first hands	Dol. 0.833	48	Dol. 0.730	48
Second hands, mixers, or ovenmen	.760	48	.677	48
Third hands or bench and machine hands	.729	48	.642	48
Machine shops:				
Foremen or first hands	1.000	40	.810	44
Second hands, mixers, or ovenmen	.913	40	.740	44
Benchmen	.875	40	.700	44
Hebrew bakeries:				
Ovenmen	1.179	42	1.031	48
Mixers or bench hands	1.071	42	.990	48
Third hands	.833	42	.729	48
Rock Island (Ill.) district				
Daywork:				
Foremen	.779	48	------	------
Mixers or ovenmen	.673	48	------	------
Benchmen	.531	48	------	------
Night work:				
Foremen	.904	48	.904	48
Mixers or ovenmen	.798	48	.798	48
Benchmen	.656	48	.656	48
St. Louis, Mo.				
Hand shops: [11]				
Foremen	[10] .833	48	.833	48
Second hands or benchmen	[10] .750	48	.750	48
Machine shops: [11]				
Foremen	[10] 1.155	40	1.100	40
Ovenmen or spongers	[10] 1.050	40	1.000	40
Assistant spongers	[10] .998	40	.950	40
Scalers or first bench hands	[10] .971	40	.925	40
Bench or machine hands	[10] .945	40	.900	40
Counters	.788	40	.750	40
Helpers	[10] .761	40	.725	40
Wrappers or slicers	.500	40	------	------
Hebrew bakeries: [11]				
Foremen or ovenmen	1.208	48	1.146	48
Second hands or benchmen	1.042	48	.979	48
Third hands	.833	48	.833	48
St. Paul, Minn.				
Foremen	.729	48	------	------
Mixers or ovenmen	.667	48	------	------
Bench hands	.646	48	------	------
San Francisco, Calif.				
Foremen or ovenmen	1.157	36	1.020	36
Mixers	1.110	36	.970	36
Bench hands	1.072	36	.950	36
Flour blenders	1.017	36	.900	36
Helpers	.853	36	.750	36

[10] $2.10 more per week for night work.

[11] 1 week's annual vacation with pay.

TABLE 9.—*Union Scales of Wages and Hours in the Bakery Trades, May 15, 1937, and May 15, 1936*—Continued

City, type of bakery, and occupation	May 15, 1937		May 15, 1936	
	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week	Rates of wages per hour	Hours per week
***San Francisco, Calif.*—Continued**				
Jobbers:				
Foremen or ovenmen	*Dol.* 0.988	40	*Dol.* ------	------
Bench hands	.919	40	------	------
Helpers	.656	40	------	------
Small bakeries:				
Foremen or ovenmen	.935	42	0.850	42
Bench hands	.874	42	.794	42
Helpers	.629	42	.571	42
French and Italian bakeries:				
Foremen, mixers, or ovenmen	.962	42	.817	45
Bench hands	.864	42	.733	45
Scranton, Pa.				
First bench hands	1.125	40	1.125	40
Second bench hands	.575	40	------	------
Third bench hands	.550	40	------	------
Fourth bench hands	.500	40	------	------
Peel-oven tenders	.825	40	.825	40
Traveling-oven tenders	.550	40	.525	40
Molders	.775	40	.775	40
Mixers	.725	40	.725	40
Dividers	.675	40	.675	40
Mixers' helpers	.650	40	.650	40
Pan greasers or pan setters	.625	40	.625	40
Helpers	.450	40	.450	40
Seattle, Wash.				
Foremen	1.180	36	1.180	36
Mixers, machinemen, or ovenmen	1.120	36	1.120	36
Bench hands	1.050	36	1.050	36
Helpers:				
Rate A	.772	36	.772	36
Rate B	.883	36	.883	36
South Bend, Ind.				
Mixers	.660	40	.660	40
Dividers	.660	44	.660	40
Bench hands	.660	40	.550	40
Peel-oven men	.650	44	.660	40
First hands	.625	48	.625	48
Molders	.600	44	.600	40
Traveling-oven tenders	.560	44	.580	40
Mixers' helpers	.530	44	.550	40
Second hands	.521	48	.521	48
Molders' helpers	.500	44	.500	40
Helpers:				
Rate A	.480	44	.480	40
Rate B	.400	44	.400	40
Spokane, Wash.				
Foremen, mixers, or ovenmen	1.100	40	.970	40
Bench or machine hands	1.000	40	.920	40
Helpers	.700	40	.650	40
Springfield, Mass.				
Foremen	[12].833	48	.833	48
Second hands, mixers, or ovenmen	.729	48	.729	48
Bench hands	[13].625	48	.625	48
Toledo, Ohio				
First mixers	*Dol.* 0.750	44	*Dol.* ------	------
Bench hands or peel-oven runner-in men	.700	44	------	------
Second mixers	.650	44	------	------
Traveling-oven men, peeler-out men, dividers, molders, or mixers' helpers	.600	44	------	------
Peel-oven helpers, molders' helpers, or wrappers	.550	44	------	------
Helpers, other	.500	44	------	------
Washington, D. C.				
Day work:				
Journeymen	1.050	40	1.020	40
Helpers	.600	40	.550	40
Night work:				
Journeymen	1.250	40	1.220	40
Helpers	.700	40	.650	40
Wichita, Kans.				
Mixers	.675	40	.650	40
Ovenmen	.675	40	.613	40
Benchmen or machinemen	.638	40	.613	40
Helpers	.500	40	.450	40
Worcester, Mass.				
Hebrew bakeries:				
Foremen	1.146	48	.938	48
Second hands	1.042	48	.833	48
Youngstown, Ohio				
Hand shops:				
Foremen	.780	48	.650	48
Mixers or ovenmen	.720	48	.600	48
Bench hands	.660	48	.550	48
Helpers	.450	48	------	------
First helpers, female	.425	48	.313	48
Second helpers, female	.375	48	.250	48
Machine shops:				
Mixers or ovenmen	.800	40	------	------
Bench and machine hands, or mixer helpers	.725	40	------	------
Dumpers and feeders	.670	40	------	------
Bakeshop helpers	.630	40	------	------
Checkers	.620	40	------	------
Chute men or head slicers and wrappers	.600	40	------	------
Packers or slicing and wrapping machine operators	.560	40	------	------
Hand wrappers	.480	40	------	------
Hebrew bakeries:				
Ovenmen	.925	48	.771	48
Mixers	.850	48	.709	48
Bench hands	.738	48	.615	48
Helpers	.450	48	.458	48

[12] 91.7 cents per hour after July 1, 1937.

[13] 66.7 cents per hour after July 1, 1937.

OVERTIME WORK BY SALARIED EMPLOYEES

THE PROBLEM of overtime among salaried employees is being given consideration by numerous companies, and in this connection determined efforts are being made to eliminate the exploitation of the rank and file of these workers.

Of 53 employers whose replies to a recent inquiry on overtime practices were analyzed, 26 reported that they had some type of restrictive regulation with reference to overtime. In 20 companies some or all of the salaried workers are paid "straight time" when they work overtime. Only four establishments stated that any of their salaried force were paid for overtime at premium rates. Thirty-three of the establishments allow equivalent time off. However, the regulations and classes of employees covered differed considerably from company to company. In 23 firms evening meals are provided for employees who are called upon to do night work. These findings and the following data are taken from an article published in the November 1937 issue of Personnel, published by American Management Association.

Many of the companies endeavor to control overtime employment and to eliminate excessive overtime. One establishment provides a check upon overtime by supervisory control of the hours of employment through time and earnings reports, cost statements, and similar expedients. Another organization which is averse to needless overtime stipulates that any employee who remains at work more than half an hour after closing time must have his time of leaving reported by his supervisor to the personnel record office. A monthly record of overtime is referred to the vice president who is responsible for the administration of the home office, and evidence of excessive overtime is submitted to the department head for corrective measures. A third establishment endeavors to reduce inordinate overtime through strict supervision and budgeting. "Yardsticks" are set up for each office to aid in finding out whether or not overtime is justifiable.

When overtime is paid for, straight time is ordinarily allowed. In one establishment, however, employees are paid 50 cents per hour for working after 7 o'clock in the evening if their salaries are less than $1,200 per annum and 75 cents per hour if their yearly salaries are between $1,200 and $3,000; but employees who receive more than $3,000 annually are not paid for overtime.

The regulations in various companies are somewhat elastic, for instance, one company pays straight time for overtime work only in cases in which it is not practicable to allow the employees compensative time off. Several companies which give equivalent time off also meet the expense for meals.

The amounts allowed for supper money differ considerably. Among those reported are 50 cents, 75 cents, 85 cents, $1.00, and $1.50. One

firm which grants its nonsupervisory employees $1.00 for dinner, as well as equivalent time off, provides that the overtime thus compensated for should be at least 2½ hours in one day. Another organization which allows time off and 85 cents for supper stipulates that the overtime so provided for shall exceed 2 hours in a single day.

While the survey here reviewed was mainly for the purpose of ascertaining the overtime policies of the companies, other data were also secured. For example, if the establishments covered in the survey "could be considered representative, it might reasonably be concluded that the 5-day week is prevalent in office organization." Twenty-nine of these establishments report that they have a 5-day week in some or all of their offices, and the information given by other companies, which do not state explicitly the number of days a week their office employees are required to work, indicates that many of these concerns also have a 5-day week. In one company a salaried employee who is called upon to work Saturday mornings receives an additional 10 percent of his weekly salary. Another organization in which it is necessary to have a skeleton force in the forenoon on Saturdays compensates the employees who are so employed by a half day off in the following week. Another concern, after negotiating with its employees on the subject, gives Saturday mornings off to those who can be spared. According to the author, these indications of the prevalence of the 5-day week in office organizations are perhaps as significant as any data regarding company overtime practices that were brought out by this survey.

EARNINGS OF OFFICE WORKERS IN NEW YORK STATE FACTORIES, OCTOBER 1937

OFFICE workers in New York State factories earned an average of $33.93 per week in October 1937, as compared with $33.05 in October 1936. Male workers received $44.76, nearly twice as much as women, who averaged only $22.41. This ratio is by no means uniform by individual industries. These figures are from the annual (October) survey by the State Department of Labor, reported upon in its Industrial Bulletin for November 1937. The workers covered in the survey included clerks, stenographers, bookkeepers, accountants, cashiers, stock clerks, office managers, and superintendents.

The average weekly earnings of office employees in the various industry groups in October of each year from 1928 to 1937 are shown in table 1. The averages given are based upon reports from the fixed list of manufacturing firms whose reports are used by the New York Department of Labor in its monthly employment record. The department states that as substantially the same firms are represented

in these reports each year the data in the table may be assumed to indicate the trend in office salaries; but that the variations in salaries between occupations, and in the proportion of higher-salaried supervisory and technical workers in different industries, make comparisons of dollar earnings between industries questionable. These differences may also explain the variations between average salaries in New York City and in the rest of the State as well as between the earnings of men and women.

TABLE 1.—*Average Weekly Earnings of Office Employees in Representative New York State Factories in October of Each Year, 1928 to 1937*

Industry	Average weekly earnings in October—									
	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
All industries	$36.37	$36.94	$37.48	$35.49	$31.86	$31.85	$32.45	$32.71	$33.05	$33.93
Stone, clay, and glass	35.10	34.70	35.52	34.35	31.48	28.83	27.74	26.47	26.65	28.07
Metals and machinery	37.63	37.72	38.29	35.06	31.27	32.39	34.29	35.30	35.56	36.83
Wood manufactures	37.22	37.56	36.74	38.07	32.04	30.31	30.59	30.05	30.02	32.67
Furs, leather, and rubber goods	29.82	29.34	30.58	28.75	24.73	24.72	23.72	24.51	24.73	23.80
Chemicals, oils, paints, etc	33.38	34.07	34.74	32.87	29.93	30.64	31.00	30.41	31.49	32.59
Pulp and paper	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]
Printing and paper goods	41.37	42.68	43.94	41.85	37.25	36.44	36.71	36.13	36.23	37.28
Textiles	30.81	30.87	33.47	33.46	29.35	31.76	29.97	[2] 26.32	26.92	26.45
Clothing and millinery	31.82	33.30	32.60	31.27	27.63	26.24	25.38	26.28	26.67	27.44
Food and tobacco	35.03	36.04	36.49	35.10	33.10	31.90	31.86	32.84	33.55	33.49
Water, light, and power	31.60	30.77	33.01	30.64	31.59	30.24	34.10	34.68	35.47	36.30

[1] Separate earnings not computed because of small number of employees.
[2] Not comparable with preceding years.

The average weekly earnings of men and women in October 1937 are given in table 2. The figures in this table were not based on a fixed list of concerns, as was the case with those in table 1.

TABLE 2.—*Average Weekly Earnings of Men and Women in Factory Offices in New York State, October 1937*

Industry [1]	Men			Women		
	Total State	New York City	Up-State	Total State	New York City	Up-State
All industries	$44.76	$45.25	$44.48	$22.41	$23.80	$21.50
Metals and machinery	44.99	40.85	45.94	22.01	23.08	21.72
Wood manufactures	43.54	36.18	46.19	20.41	21.11	20.27
Furs, leather, and rubber goods	36.70	38.22	35.20	22.28	25.67	18.94
Chemicals, oils, paints, etc	44.40	38.79	47.04	21.91	22.64	21.62
Printing and paper goods	49.98	54.45	41.97	23.05	24.01	21.75
Textiles	37.14	40.28	36.21	20.76	20.32	20.91
Clothing and millinery	38.26	37.54	40.26	23.00	23.95	20.58
Food and tobacco	43.21	44.95	40.46	23.25	24.47	21.97

[1] Separate earnings not computed for stone, clay, and glass, pulp and paper, and water, light, and power industries, because of small number of employees.

Employment in New York factory offices increased 14.1 percent and total pay rolls 17.1 percent from October 1936 to October 1937. Table 3, taken from the November 1937 Industrial Bulletin (Albany), shows the number of employees and amount of pay roll, by industry, in October 1937, with the percent of change from October 1936.

TABLE 3.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Factory Offices in New York State, October 1937, Compared with October 1936*

Industry	Employees		Pay roll	
	Number, October 1937	Percent of change, October 1936–October 1937	Amount, October 1937	Percent of change, October 1936–October 1937
All industries	46,475	+14.1	$1,576,710	+17.1
Stone, clay, and glass	786	+8.7	22,062	+14.5
Metals and machinery	16,038	+15.0	590,737	+19.1
Wood manufactures	1,402	+4.7	45,797	+13.9
Furs, leather, and rubber goods	2,973	+21.0	70,745	+16.4
Chemicals, oils, paints, etc	3,954	+3.8	128,880	+7.5
Pulp and paper	332	+9.6	13,534	+18.3
Printing and paper goods	9,407	+18.2	350,723	+21.7
Textiles	2,229	+29.0	58,950	+26.7
Clothing and millinery	3,724	+9.0	102,190	+12.2
Food and tobacco	4,007	+17.3	134,178	+17.1
Water, light, and power	1,623	−.9	58,914	+1.4

EARNINGS IN PUERTO RICAN INDUSTRIES 1936–37

THE average hourly earnings of 80,834 workers in 1,411 industrial establishments and agricultural undertakings in Puerto Rico in 1936–37 were 13.4 cents and the average actual earnings per week, $4.76. The average earnings of approximately one-third of these workers were less than 10 cents per hour. The 55,247 males averaged 15.6 cents and the 25,481 females, 9.1 cents. The working week was most commonly 48 hours. In the year under review the average earnings of males in refrigerating plants were 43.3 cents per hour, whereas adult males in tobacco cultivation averaged as little as 7.3 cents. In the industries listed in the following table as employing women the hourly earnings of females ranged from 4.7 cents in fruit-packing shops to 19.2 cents in cigarette factories. These and the following data are taken from the Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor of Puerto Rico, 1936–37, except when otherwise noted.

TABLE 1.—*Average Hourly and Weekly Earnings and Hours of Labor in Various Industries in Puerto Rico, 1936–37*

Industry, and sex of workers	Number of establishments	Number of employees	Average hours per week		Average earnings per hour	Average earnings per week	
			Full time	Actually worked		Full time	Actual
Alcohol distilleries: Males	6	116	55.6	50.7	$0.178	$9.89	$9.03
Button factories:							
Males	3	335	48.0	39.8	.189	9.07	7.51
Females	2	145	48.0	43.6	.107	5.13	4.66
Cigar factories:							
Males	26	436	47.5	41.9	.203	9.64	8.52
Females	8	528	47.8	34.2	.171	8.17	5.86
Cigarette factories:							
Males	1	13	48.0	26.7	.351	16.85	9.40
Females	1	11	48.0	28.1	.192	9.22	5.39
Coffee cultivation:							
Males	106	1,170	48.0	36.0	.072	3.45	2.60
Females	36	278	48.0	31.3	.067	3.21	2.11
Coffee roasting: Males	10	87	48.0	46.3	.161	7.73	7.48
Fruit canneries:							
Males	4	177	52.3	30.0	.112	5.86	3.36
Females	4	614	50.5	28.4	.08	4.04	2.29
Fruit packing shops:							
Males	2	202	48.0	36.1	.094	4.51	3.41
Females	4	43	48.0	43.2	.047	2.26	2.02
Hat factories:							
Males	4	181	47.8	46.6	.219	10.47	10.23
Females	4	230	47.8	41.7	.128	6.12	5.35
Needlework industry:							
Children's garments:							
Males, adult	18	110	45.9	34.3	.154	7.07	5.29
Females	22	1,740	46.9	31.9	.104	4.88	3.33
Handkerchiefs and art linen:							
Males	43	526	46.5	33.6	.111	5.16	3.74
Females	40	1,953	46.2	35.0	.093	4.29	3.26
Men's shirts:							
Males	6	69	45.7	41.7	.160	7.31	6.68
Females	6	433	44.9	36.6	.111	4.98	4.07
Men's suits:							
Males	6	208	48.0	41.2	.143	6.86	5.90
Females	6	430	48.0	34.5	.139	6.67	4.80
Pants:							
Males	19	98	47.7	41.9	.121	5.77	5.07
Females	18	409	47.0	39.3	.093	4.37	3.67
Women's underwear:							
Males	27	251	47.4	35.6	.136	6.44	4.85
Females	47	2,511	46.5	33.5	.099	4.60	3.33
Women's dresses:							
Males	2	18	45.1	43.3	.191	8.61	8.29
Females	4	284	45.4	41.3	.104	4.72	4.29
Refrigerating plants: Males	2	5	49.6	49.6	.433	21.50	21.50
Sugar-cane planting: Males, adult	109	20,143	49.1	28.4	.128	6.28	3.65
Sugar factories: Males, adult	41	12,230	55.6	44.2	.175	9.73	7.73
Sugar refineries: Males	3	384	56.0	48.6	.168	9.41	8.18
Tobacco cultivation:							
Males, adult	112	1,515	47.9	36.3	.073	3.50	2.66
Females	76	676	48.0	31.4	.05	2.40	1.56
Tobacco stripping:							
Males	50	1,492	48.0	45.0	.122	5.86	5.50
Females	50	13,033	47.2	40.4	.08	3.78	3.26

The average hourly earnings of 6,954 workers in 1,268 commercial establishments in Puerto Rico in 1936–37 were 16.6 cents, the 5,927 adult males averaging 17.5 cents, the 1,020 adult females 11.8 cents and 7 boys, 4.78 cents. The average actual weekly hours for both sexes together were 48.9.

Earnings of Home Workers

Needlework is one of Puerto Rico's principal industries, offering employment for some 50,000 women, many of whom ply this craft in their own homes [1] for a scant remuneration. In the last quarter of 1936 the Puerto Rican Bureau of Women and Children in Industry visited 36 towns and barrios where needlework is being carried on in homes. The survey included 306 homes where 400 home workers were interviewed as to their hours, earnings, and working conditions.

The general business practices in the industry, as disclosed in the 1933 investigation by the Island Bureau in cooperation with United States Women's Bureau, have not changed.[2]

In the survey of 1936 the data on earnings and working time relate to the last bundle of work completed or about to be delivered by the person interviewed. Many of these bundles were small; others were large enough to keep the needleworkers busy from 2 to 4 weeks.

The estimated hourly earnings of home workers, based on the last bundle of work, were as follows:

Hourly earnings	*Percent of home workers*
Less than one-half a cent	8¾
One-half cent and less than 1 cent	13¼
1 cent and less than 2 cents	24½
2 cents and less than 4 cents	30½
4 cents and less than 9 cents	17¾
9 cents and less than 25 cents	2
25 cents and over	¼
No report	3
Total	100

The commissions of agents and subagents reduce considerably the home workers' earnings. In 23 percent of 53 styles for which information was secured, the agent claimed as commission 20 percent of the home workers' earnings; for 41 percent of the styles, 20 to 30 percent of the earnings; for 14 percent of the styles, 30 to 40 percent of the earnings; and for the remaining styles, 40 or more percent of the earnings.

The reduction of the earnings of home workers as a result of their work's passing through so many hands is shown in the following table:

[1] U. S. Department of the Interior. Annual report of the Secretary, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1937. Washington 1937. P. 331.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, July 1935 (pp. 153–154).

TABLE 2.—*Earnings of Agents, Subagents, and Home Workers*

Garment	Amount per dozen paid by contractors	Earnings (per dozen) of			Percent of total work distributed by		
		Agent	Subagent	Home worker	Agent	Subagent	Home worker
Handkerchiefs	$0.17	$0.01	$0.01	$0.15	5.8	5.8	88.2
Nightgowns	1.60	.60	----------	1.00	37.5	----------	62.5
Slips	1.40	.30	.10	1.00	21.4	7.1	71.4
Hand towels	.35	.03	.07	.25	8.6	20.0	71.4
Costume slips	1.55	.23	.12	1.20	14.8	7.7	77.4
Nightgowns	1.93	.35	.38	1.20	18.1	20.0	62.0
	2.48	.30	1.38	.80	12.0	55.6	32.2
	2.25	.45	.50	1.30	20.0	22.2	57.7

In the annual report of the Secretary of the Interior for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1937 (p. 331), reference is made to the recently organized needlework cooperative in Puerto Rico to assist many thousands of skilled needleworkers who found themselves without employment when relief was discontinued. Established as Puerto Rico Handcraft, Inc., this organization has been for some months placing its high-grade hand-made silk garments on the market in the island and is planning to seek later an outlet in the United States.

EMPLOYMENT, WAGES, AND HOURS IN ITALY, 1937 [1]

IN JUNE 1937, 16 percent of the industrial establishments in 35 industries in Italy, which employed 52 percent of all workers in these industries, reported a total daily average of 1,440,106 employees, working an average of 166 hours per month, for an average hourly wage of 2.17 lire.[2] The workers in 28 occupations, totaling 1,083,449, classified by weekly hours of labor showed, during the last week in August 1937, the following distribution: Less than 40 hours, 16.8 percent; 40 to 45 hours, 44.4 percent; 45 to 48 hours, 28.8 percent; and over 48 hours, 10 percent. In 1936 the average hourly wage for male agricultural workers was 1.15 lire; for industrial workers, including men, women, and children, 1.74 lire.

Table 1 shows, for 35 industries in Italy for June 1937, the percentage of establishments and of workers reporting; the average number of workers employed per day; average earnings per hour per worker; and the average number of hours worked during the month per worker.

For the first 6 months of 1937, the average hourly wage for men, women, and children in Italian industry varied as follows: January, 1.79 lire; February, March, and April, 1.77 lire; May, 2.11 lire; and

[1] Bollettino Mensile di Statistica dell' Istituto Centrale de Statistica del Regno d'Italia, Supplemento ordinario alla "Gazzetta Ufficiale." (Rome), August 21, 1937 (p. 538); September 21, 1937 (p. 618); and October 21, 1937 (pp. 704, 705).

[2] Average exchange value of lira, January to August 1937=5.26 cents.

June, 2.17 lire. The notable increase in May and June 1937 was due in part to a resolution of April 30, 1937, which established wage increases of 10 and 12 percent in industry, effective May 9, 1937.[3]

TABLE 1.—*Employment and Hourly Earnings in Italy, June 1937, by Industry*

Industry	Coverage (percent of total)		Average number of workers employed per day	Average earnings per hour per worker	Average hours worked per month per worker
	Establishments represented	Workers reported			
				Lire	
All industries	16	52	1,440,106	2.17	166
Agricultural and other food industries	5	26	32,365	1.66	131
Beer and soft drinks	14	46	4,291	2.40	181
Dairying and flour industry	24	47	18,731	2.01	159
Wines and liquors	19	41	4,829	2.02	167
Sugar	71	87	10,119	2.81	173
Candy	27	60	9,871	2.03	157
Fishing	5	40	4,814	1.25	136
Extractive	24	55	52,913	2.11	165
Building, road, and hydraulic construction	21	35	187,368	2.24	152
Cement (lime and gypsum)	25	55	22,832	2.17	158
Pottery and brick kilns	30	51	36,731	1.97	166
Glass	35	56	15,623	2.34	164
Mechanical	34	61	273,231	2.71	183
Metallurgical	40	78	97,607	2.95	180
Clothing	25	36	14,186	1.53	171
Hats	20	54	9,752	2.16	131
Tanning	38	69	12,728	2.39	170
Shoes and leather goods	34	48	22,216	1.85	145
Cotton	53	78	161,516	1.55	166
Wool	47	80	70,902	1.77	170
Silk:					
Treating and spinning	40	57	24,781	.93	142
Weaving	41	72	21,157	1.64	170
Flax, hemp, and jute	41	74	32,377	1.35	165
Knitting and hosiery	50	60	27,624	1.51	166
Miscellaneous textiles	41	82	32,887	1.73	174
Artificial textile fibers	49	83	25,499	2.02	173
Chemical products	31	66	70,998	2.46	173
Paper	40	68	31,625	1.88	171
Graphic arts	32	49	19,698	2.60	172
Wood	22	39	36,911	1.90	156
Water and gas works	52	49	3,683	3.15	205
Buttons	46	83	6,353	1.24	178
Toys	29	33	1,030	1.02	170
Gold and silversmiths	43	57	3,039	2.29	164
Clothing accessories and furnishings	30	54	12,958	1.73	170
Rubber and plastic materials	46	69	26,861	2.46	170

The percentage distribution of industrial workers in Italy, by industry and by weekly hours of labor, for the last week in August 1937, is shown in table 2, which also gives the total number of workers in each industry for the same period.

[3] Il Lavoro Fascista (Rome), May 1, 1937.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Distribution of Workers in Italy, by Industry and by Weekly Hours, Last Week of August 1937*

Industry	Total number of persons employed	Percent working, per week—			
		Less than 40 hours	40–45 hours	45–48 hours	Over 48 hours
All industries	1,083,449	16.8	44.4	28.8	10.0
Treating of silk	25,599	14.4	82.5	3.0	.1
Silk spinning	16,598	24.6	53.6	21.3	.5
Silk weaving	25,927	18.7	39.4	37.0	4.9
Rayon	28,181	18.8	46.6	22.4	12.2
Cotton	190,207	18.6	40.4	35.6	5.4
Wool	89,394	19.2	31.4	42.6	6.8
Flax and hemp	23,724	22.6	33.9	37.6	5.9
Jute	13,582	38.1	38.6	16.5	6.8
Hosiery	23,136	18.3	53.4	21.0	7.3
Knitting	16,050	26.4	51.6	17.1	4.9
Hats	9,346	41.5	47.2	10.0	1.3
Iron	70,825	15.6	48.1	28.2	8.1
Welding	25,495	9.4	49.3	28.3	13.0
Automobiles	31,982	3.8	22.8	56.5	16.9
Automobile body works	10,731	10.2	29.6	45.4	14.8
Railway machine shops	15,124	16.5	47.1	25.9	10.5
Electrical shops	41,976	12.5	40.2	29.4	17.9
Specialized mechanical shops	100,688	8.3	38.1	29.9	23.7
Various shops	151,336	14.6	51.1	24.2	10.1
Shipyards	28,470	5.9	31.6	22.5	40.0
Rubber	20,983	13.4	42.9	38.5	5.2
Perphosphate	6,878	15.1	66.2	10.9	7.8
Tanning	12,468	20.8	61.0	15.9	2.3
Shoes	24,639	32.6	52.5	12.0	2.9
Paper	28,395	21.7	51.1	21.3	5.9
Cement	16,179	14.4	73.6	9.8	2.2
Glass	17,013	14.7	59.2	22.0	4.1
Dough products factories	18,523	41.7	42.4	10.9	5.0

In table 3 are presented the hourly wages of adult workers in various occupations in 5 large cities of Italy on January 1, 1937.

TABLE 3.—*Wages per Hour, Adult Workers in Various Occupations in 5 Large Cities of Italy, January 1, 1937*

Industry and occupation	Florence	Milan	Rome	Turin	Venice
Building:	*Lire*	*Lire*	*Lire*	*Lire*	*Lire*
Masons	2.75	3.20	3.15	2.90, 3.25	3.00
Bricklayers	2.75	3.20	3.15	3.10	2.85
Carpenters	2.95	3.47	3.25	3.25	2.85, 3.00
Joiners	2.10, 2.65	2.62	3.15	2.89	2.85
Tinners (hydraulic brass workers)	2.90	3.38, 3.88	3.25	3.20, 3.50	2.85, 3.00
Painters	3.30	3.72	3.15	2.85, 3.25	3.00, 4.70
Structural-iron workers	2.30	3.20	3.45	----------	2.35
Concrete workers	2.80	3.53	3.30	3.25, 3.50	2.85, 3.00
Laborers	1.90	2.02	2.60	2.10	2.10, 2.20
Mechanical engineering:					
Fitters	2.31	2.55	3.25	3.30	2.25
Turners	2.31	2.55	3.25	2.60	2.25
Molders	2.31	3.20	2.90	3.30	3.00
Patternmakers	3.03	----------	(1)	(1)	2.25
Laborers, unskilled	1.87	2.08	2.20	2.00	1.80
Furniture:					
Cabinet makers	2.90	3.24	3.45	2.77	1.99, 3.13
Upholsterers	2.95	2.93	3.97	2.92	2.89
Polishers	2.50	2.46	3.25	2.86	2.77

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Wages per Hour, Adult Workers in Various Occupations in 5 Large Cities of Italy, January 1, 1937*—Continued

Industry and occupation	Florence	Milan	Rome	Turin	Venice
	Lire	*Lire*	*Lire*	*Lire*	*Lire*
Printing:					
Compositors, hand	3.50	3.97–4.15	3.60	4.07	4.15
Compositors, machine	3.80	4.33	3.80	4.43	4.49
Machine minders	3.50	3.91–4.52	3.60	4.05	4.15
Bookbinders	3.50	3.94–4.11	2.90–3.15	4.04	4.16
Laborers	2.25	3.10	2.40	2.36	1.78
Electrical installation:					
Skilled electricians	3.18–3.78	2.05–3.13	4.53	3.27	2.62
Electric power distribution:					
Skilled electricians	(1)	----------	(1)	3.08	(1)
Unskilled laborers	----------	----------	1.45	2.15	(1)
Transportation:					
Motormen, street car	2.25	2.93	(1)	2.50–2.98	(1)
Motormen, autobus	2.25	3.45	(1)	2.50–2.98	(1)
Conductors, street car	2.00	2.85	(1)	2.34–2.82	1.99
Conductors, autobus	2.00	2.95	(1)	2.34–2.82	2.03
Motor drivers	2.12	2.45–2.60	3.25–3.90	2.20–2.50	2.02
Horse drivers	2.35	----------	(2)	2.05–2.10	1.72
Porters, freight	2.30	2.07	(3)	1.93–2.00	2.09
Maintenance of way men	1.85	2.45	3.25	2.05–2.52	1.65
Food:					
Bakers	2.60–3.50	2.08–3.48	2.25–3.10	2.19–3.63	2.43–3.40
Local authorities:					
Unskilled laborers	1.80–2.30	2.89	2.30	1.78–2.11	2.14

[1] Paid by the month.
[2] Daily wage of 6.50 lire, plus a share of receipts varying from 17 to 45 percent.
[3] Piecework.

EARNINGS OF MOTORCAR DRIVERS IN SOVIET UNION, 1937 [1]

WHEN the first 5-year plan (1928–32) was promulgated, there were in the Soviet Union only about 18,000 freight and passenger motorcars, and these were mainly of obsolete types. In 1935 the number of motorcars had risen to 260,000, and the motorcar industry of that country had advanced to fifth place in the world and to fourth place in Europe. By the end of 1937 the Soviet Union led all the countries of Europe in the manufacture of freight motorcars and held second place in the world.

Parallel with the growth of motor-vehicle traffic there was an advance in the number and importance of chauffeurs and drivers. These workers were organized first in the Union of Workers of the Public Transport Services. In 1934, however, a special Motor Drivers'

[1] Joint press report of International Transportworkers' Federation and International Marine Officers' Association, Antwerp, Belgium, October 11, 1937.

Union was founded, embracing the drivers of trucks, passenger cars, buses, and taxis, as well as the workers in the repair shops. Because of the growth of the union it was divided into regional sections—one for Moscow and Leningrad, and one for the South, and one for the East.

At the time of its foundation in 1934 the Moscow and Leningrad Motor Drivers' Union had 96,424 members of a total number of 111,460 drivers and repair workers. By January 1, 1937, its membership had risen to 153,000 out of 160,000 workers in that industry in the Soviet Union. The executive organ of the union is the central committee which is elected at the congress, and under which are workers' committees, works councils, group committees, according to the nature of the enterprise. In addition the union has six regional committees.

The motor drivers of Soviet Russia have a 7-hour day; workers engaged in work harmful to health (as in accumulator rooms) a 6-hour day. Drivers and workers engaged in unhealthful work receive a month's paid vacation per year. Woman workers, in case of pregnancy, receive 4 months' leave—two before and two after childbirth—during which the average rate of wages is paid. Pupils at technical schools are given 1 to 1½ months' leave per year. The working of longer hours is punished directly by the union or by a court sentence.

The wages of bus and taxi drivers consist of a basic wage varying according to qualifications, and various allowances for good care of the car, economy in the use of fuel, tires, etc. The basic monthly wages of class 1 bus drivers are 471 rubles [2] and those of class 2 drivers are 421 rubles; for taxi drivers of these classes the rates are 246 and 216 rubles, respectively. In addition, bus drivers have a seniority allowance, which amounts to 10 percent of the basic wage after 2 years' service, and 20 percent after 3 years' service. The allowances are as follows: 33 rubles a month for good care of the vehicle; half a month's wages for driving half a year without a break-down; 60 percent of the value of the gasoline saved; and 65 percent of the value of the saving in tires. In this way a taxi driver's earnings total 400 to 450 rubles a month.

The wages of truck drivers are made up differently. In addition to the basic wage, which again varies according to the qualifications of the driver and the carrying capacity of the car, payment is also made for time taken up by the loading and unloading of the cars. The basic wage of a first-class driver of a 5-ton truck, for instance, is 341 rubles a month, to which are added allowances, totaling 50 to 100 rubles per quarter year, for taking good care of the car and driving without break-downs. The allowances for economy in the use of fuel and tires are the same as for other drivers. Actual earnings of truck drivers average 600 to 700 rubles a month.

[2] Value of ruble as fixed by Soviet law is 20 cents in United States currency.

INCREASE OF WAGES OF LOW-PAID WORKERS IN SOVIET UNION

THE Soviet of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. issued a resolution on November 1, 1937, in accordance with which the lowest paid industrial and transportation workers were to receive increases of wages.[1] The average industrial wage rose from about 190 rubles[2] a month in 1935 to approximately 237 rubles a month in 1936; this average, however, included the salaries of the highest paid officials, engineers, and skilled workers, as well as those of the lowest paid unskilled laborers. The wage scale of the unskilled workers remained at an extremely low level. The majority of skilled workers had by 1935 considerably increased their money income to meet the rising cost of living because of the fact that they had been put on a piece-rate basis, but the average unskilled worker continued to work for the most part on a time basis and earned about 70 rubles a month—a wage rate which had been established in 1929 when staple food and other prices were much lower.

In 1935 70 percent of all working time was paid for on a piece-rate basis whereas in 1928 only about one-half (57.5 percent) was paid on this basis.[3] Although no precise figures have been published concerning the present extent of piece work, it has undoubtedly increased, as in 1936, 78 percent of all work in heavy industry was organized under the piece-work system.[4] The new wage increases tend to close, at least to some extent, the gap between the lowest paid workers and the higher paid piece workers. Beginning November 1, 1937, laborers working on a time basis will receive not less than 115 rubles a month; those on piece work will be paid not less than 110 rubles a month. The total wage fund is to be increased in 1938 for this purpose by 600,000,000 rubles.

[1] Report of Hon. Joseph E. Davies, United States Ambassador to the Soviet Union, November 11, 1937.
[2] Value of ruble as fixed by Soviet law is 20 cents, United States currency.
[3] Pravda No. 275, October 5, 1937.
[4] Plannovoe Khozyastvo (Planned Economy), November 1, 1937.

Employment Offices

OPERATIONS OF UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, DECEMBER 1937

OVER 1,162,000 claims for unemployment-compensation benefits were filed through offices of the United States Employment Service during the first week of January, preliminary reports reveal. This total represents the initial registrations in the 22 States (including the District of Columbia) which inaugurated benefit payment procedure at the beginning of January 1938, as well as the claims received in Wisconsin, where unemployment-compensation benefit payments have been made for some time. This large initial volume of registrations for claims received follows an increasing volume of new applications during December. In the month a total of 452,000 new applications were registered at the Employment Service offices throughout the country. A large number of placements also were made, 178,676 being reported, although declines were reported from the previous month.

The largest number of placements among the 178,676 jobs filled during December were in private employment. Altogether 129,382 private jobs were filled, 65,761 represented placements of men and 63,621 those of women. Private placements during the month were 17.9 percent less than the number reported in the previous month, the greater part of the decline being in placements of men. In addition to seasonal influences and the effects of reduced activity in certain lines of business, a large part of the decrease in placements resulted from the increased load placed upon the facilities of the offices by the expanded registration of workers. Placements on public work at prevailing wages numbered 46,663, nearly all placements being of men. The Employment Service also assisted in making 2,631 assignments on security-wage relief-work jobs.

Nearly 900,000 registrations for work were received at the employment offices during December, 452,035 representing new applications received from persons registering with the Service for the first time, and 441,235 applications representing the renewal of registrations which had been received previously but which had lapsed to an inactive status. The volume of new applications represents a gain of 51.1 percent over the number reported in November and is the highest single month's total received since December 1935.

The increase may be accounted for in large part as being made in anticipation of the inauguration of unemployment-compensation benefit payments in 22 States beginning in January 1938. Although the percentage increase in the volume of new applicants for the country as a whole was 51.1 percent, the increase in volume in those States planning to pay unemployment-compensation benefits equaled 76.7 percent. In the non-benefit-paying States, however, the average increase was only 12.9 percent. Registration with public employment offices is required in connection with the filing of claims for benefits and many claimants registered in advance of the formal filing of their claim. Increases in the volume of new applications were reported in 39 States.

As a result of this large inflow both in new applicants and in registrants previously registered but recently inactive, the active file of the Employment Service rose 10.3 percent during the month to a total of 4,874,924 registrants. The largest increases in the active file were reported among men, a gain of 11.7 percent occurring. This brought the total of male applicants to 3,816,171. Active women registrants numbered 1,058,753.

A summary of the activities during December is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Operations of United States Employment Service, December 1937*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		November 1937	December 1936	December 1935
New applications	452,035	+51.1	+47.2	−9.8
Total placements	178,676	−20.3	−41.1	−77.7
Private	129,382	−17.9	−24.8	+114.0
Public	46,663	−26.8	−59.9	−48.7
Relief	2,631	−9.6	−82.5	−100.0
Active file	4,874,924	+10.3	−22.8	−46.0

Reports of activities of the Employment Service for veterans showed the same general trends in every field as for nonveterans. The increase in the number of veterans in the active file, however, was slightly less than the increase for nonveteran men (table 2).

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Veterans' Activities, December 1937*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		November 1937	December 1936	December 1935
New applications	17,295	+55.0	+36.8	−20.4
Total placements	9,810	−21.3	−48.1	−83.3
Private	4,822	−32.7	−35.0	+74.0
Public	4,673	−5.4	−55.6	−52.6
Relief	315	−10.5	−66.6	−99.3
Active file	267,915	+9.7	−22.2	−51.5

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, December 1937*

TOTAL

Division and State	Placements							New applications		Active file	
		Private				Public					
	Total [1]	Number	Percent of change from November	Regular (over 1 month)	Temporary (1 month or less)	Number	Percent of change from November	Number	Percent of change from November	Dec. 31	Percent of change from Nov. 30
United States	178,676	129,382	−17.9	43,740	85,642	46,663	−26.8	452,035	+51.1	4,874,924	+10.3
New England	5,776	3,969	−17.9	2,029	1,940	1,700	−30.5	61,893	+174.6	453,599	+22.4
Maine	479	151	+46.6	82	69	328	−42.8	6,138	+259.4	26,513	+45.7
New Hampshire	822	656	−14.8	458	198	164	−46.8	3,598	+124.5	23,607	+32.3
Vermont	749	388	−1.0	185	203	361	−3.7	1,641	+48.1	10,407	+41.6
Massachusetts	1,245	877	−30.6	448	429	368	−41.2	19,981	+119.6	260,624	+8.9
Rhode Island	588	432	−9.8	198	234	117	−8.6	9,736	+187.6	49,162	+35.0
Connecticut	1,893	1,465	−19.7	658	807	362	−16.8	20,799	+269.0	83,286	+61.7
Middle Atlantic	19,392	14,614	−23.6	4,926	9,688	4,496	−33.9	87,775	+68.9	1,110,677	+7.6
New York	10,903	8,598	−26.3	2,504	6,094	2,233	−42.8	33,211	+47.5	251,597	−1.3
New Jersey	3,024	2,623	−23.8	981	1,642	392	+9.5	9,343	−.2	182,614	+7.7
Pennsylvania	5,465	3,393	−15.6	1,441	1,952	1,871	−26.4	45,221	+124.9	676,466	+11.2
East North Central	33,429	26,925	−19.8	10,466	16,459	5,208	−37.0	71,186	+7.0	965,104	+7.5
Ohio	9,486	7,039	−19.9	2,643	4,396	1,469	−40.8	16,382	+10.1	277,776	+8.4
Indiana	3,037	2,766	−16.8	1,590	1,176	268	−19.3	7,900	−12.7	102,665	−1.6
Illinois	13,805	11,571	−17.2	3,857	7,714	2,173	−38.7	16,972	−8.7	300,097	+4.6
Michigan	3,278	2,561	−31.8	902	1,659	575	−33.4	14,022	+42.3	147,782	+12.8
Wisconsin	3,823	2,988	−19.7	1,474	1,514	723	−31.2	15,910	+12.3	136,784	+14.8
West North Central	18,827	12,483	−25.3	5,222	7,261	6,157	−38.1	29,551	+9.8	511,236	+5.1
Minnesota	4,502	3,387	−20.3	1,743	1,644	1,062	−46.3	8,259	+21.2	115,566	+3.6
Iowa	4,096	2,816	−30.9	1,022	1,794	1,160	−39.1	4,887	+7.5	62,801	+13.2
Missouri	3,717	2,210	−24.4	991	1,219	1,506	+2.1	7,539	+16.3	151,854	+6.4
North Dakota	1,988	1,806	−23.7	607	1,199	180	−72.8	1,131	−36.2	26,911	+3.9
South Dakota	1,264	527	−18.0	111	416	726	−49.9	1,556	+17.3	51,581	−3.0
Nebraska	1,645	830	−33.3	413	417	815	−54.4	2,555	−17.8	42,455	+5.6
Kansas	1,615	907	−25.2	335	572	708	+2.6	3,624	+26.9	60,068	+5.0
South Atlantic	21,577	11,859	−17.8	5,041	6,818	9,222	−23.3	60,848	+89.1	527,263	+12.6
Delaware	606	540	−31.4	142	398	60	−58.3	898	+10.2	10,733	+4.7
Maryland	1,649	1,011	−11.2	445	566	638	−34.9	14,696	+227.6	53,404	+48.9
District of Columbia	1,881	1,704	−7.1	735	969	177	+9.9	2,213	−10.8	26,848	−10.4
Virginia	3,681	1,927	+5.9	948	979	1,747	−22.4	4,598	+11.3	47,204	−4.1
West Virginia	1,463	994	−30.1	483	511	258	−68.1	6,981	+147.5	80,291	+18.1
North Carolina	4,826	3,209	−6.5	1,265	1,944	1,615	−14.4	17,888	+125.9	93,989	+25.9
South Carolina	1,557	614	−55.2	267	347	935	−30.4	2,938	+35.8	52,251	+7.8
Georgia	4,554	1,860	−29.2	756	1,104	2,691	−22.8	8,696	+40.7	99,965	+11.5
Florida	1,360	0	-------	0	0	1,101	+15.4	1,940	+63.0	62,638	+.8
East South Central	10,043	4,469	−11.9	2,274	2,195	5,498	−18.5	28,069	+66.0	368,954	+6.6
Kentucky	2,535	1,070	−12.7	452	618	1,447	−3.0	2,547	−24.0	104,530	+1.1
Tennessee	2,856	2,029	+20.4	1,125	904	827	−44.5	8,043	+85.4	116,839	+4.9
Alabama	2,126	1,168	−43.9	570	598	903	+37.2	12,576	+109.8	88,360	+26.5
Mississippi	2,526	202	+155.7	127	75	2,321	−25.3	4,903	+52.1	59,225	−3.5
West South Central	42,305	36,670	−3.9	5,276	31,394	5,571	−7.2	44,287	+54.0	395,143	+6.9
Arkansas	1,739	1,481	−43.1	408	1,073	253	−8.7	3,415	+113.3	47,525	+10.7
Louisiana	4,367	3,688	+19.3	1,417	2,271	675	+18.8	7,473	+44.2	64,816	+9.3
Oklahoma	2,819	1,939	−33.0	349	1,590	878	−29.3	5,876	+61.5	98,055	+7.3
Texas	33,380	29,562	−.0	3,102	26,460	3,765	−3.9	27,523	+50.1	184,747	+5.0
Mountain	9,536	5,542	−30.9	2,446	3,096	3,886	−29.5	14,408	+10.1	171,813	+15.1
Montana	1,164	409	−74.3	143	266	751	−36.5	1,158	+13.5	23,333	+12.0
Idaho	840	582	−32.6	304	278	258	−26.9	2,170	+43.6	17,862	+28.4
Wyoming	485	295	−19.6	83	212	136	−66.7	554	−8.7	6,389	+28.1
Colorado	2,792	1,664	−10.2	677	987	1,109	−31.3	4,436	−8.5	59,026	+12.5
New Mexico	1,005	448	−49.4	235	213	554	−15.9	1,104	−11.6	24,303	+6.8
Arizona	1,900	1,144	−7.9	693	451	730	+16.1	2,600	+34.6	18,394	+18.2
Utah	790	601	−34.0	134	467	187	−55.6	1,747	+24.6	18,408	+21.2
Nevada	560	399	+32.6	177	222	161	−33.7	639	+21.9	4,098	+15.1
Pacific	17,791	12,851	−27.0	6,060	6,791	4,925	−18.4	54,018	+34.4	371,135	+23.4
Washington	2,180	942	−29.7	398	544	1,230	−21.2	8,101	+32.8	71,592	+21.0
Oregon	1,547	675	−38.9	303	372	871	−3.9	9,370	+103.5	54,945	+28.9
California	14,064	11,234	−25.9	5,359	5,875	2,824	−20.9	36,547	+23.9	244,598	+23.0

[1] Includes 2,631 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, December 1937*—Continued

MEN

Division and State	Placements							New applications		Active file	
		Private				Public					
	Total [1]	Number	Percent of change from November	Regular (over 1 month)	Temporary (1 month or less)	Number	Percent of change from November	Number	Percent of change from November	Dec. 31	Percent of change from Nov. 30
United States	113,841	65,761	−28.0	18,274	47,487	45,692	−27.1	340,026	+68.7	3,816,171	+11.7
New England	3,385	1,660	−27.6	894	766	1,645	−31.4	43,281	+186.2	336,252	+22.9
Maine	394	70	+62.8	25	45	324	−43.5	4,464	+256.0	22,501	+43.5
New Hampshire	536	374	−27.9	272	102	161	−47.0	2,362	+129.8	18,036	+32.6
Vermont	524	164	−24.1	74	90	360	−4.0	1,370	+71.5	8,615	+47.8
Massachusetts	717	353	−40.8	162	191	364	−41.3	14,601	+134.9	189,987	+9.1
Rhode Island	224	122	−31.1	59	63	89	−28.2	5,911	+171.6	34,733	+34.8
Connecticut	990	577	−22.3	302	275	347	−13.9	14,573	+299.3	62,380	+62.1
Middle Atlantic	9,763	5,301	−35.1	1,753	3,548	4,213	−34.9	67,879	+101.4	876,224	+8.6
New York	5,633	3,469	−36.1	965	2,504	2,092	−43.0	25,489	+77.2	194,436	−1.0
New Jersey	1,149	750	−34.4	293	457	390	+9.6	7,029	+19.4	147,231	+8.5
Pennsylvania	2,981	1,082	−32.5	495	587	1,731	−29.2	35,361	+163.2	534,557	+12.6
East North Central	17,287	10,934	−34.1	3,980	6,954	5,111	−37.4	53,061	+22.0	773,647	+9.0
Ohio	5,141	2,739	−38.1	887	1,852	1,431	−41.4	12,801	+24.6	224,897	+10.5
Indiana	1,330	1,072	−26.9	567	505	256	−20.7	5,454	−1.2	83,016	−.7
Illinois	7,124	4,946	−28.8	1,603	3,343	2,150	−38.6	11,681	+5.7	235,480	+5.1
Michigan	1,793	1,086	−46.2	358	728	572	−33.1	11,588	+58.5	123,922	+15.3
Wisconsin	1,899	1,091	−37.0	565	526	702	−32.3	11,537	+23.7	106,332	+17.0
West North Central	12,400	6,151	−37.3	2,210	3,941	6,069	−38.5	21,177	+23.0	414,297	+6.2
Minnesota	2,689	1,595	−29.4	801	794	1,042	−46.8	6,236	+51.1	92,389	+5.5
Iowa	2,636	1,394	−43.6	433	961	1,123	−40.4	3,523	+16.5	50,758	+15.1
Missouri	2,506	1,001	−38.4	345	656	1,504	+2.0	5,321	+32.1	121,553	+7.1
North Dakota	1,159	980	−36.7	336	644	177	−72.8	650	−35.1	21,182	+4.1
South Dakota	1,006	282	−31.7	36	246	718	−49.9	1,067	+17.8	44,548	−2.2
Nebraska	1,167	360	−49.0	136	224	807	−54.6	1,790	−17.9	34,771	+6.6
Kansas	1,237	539	−31.9	123	416	698	+2.2	2,590	+32.8	49,096	+5.4
South Atlantic	14,832	5,318	−31.3	1,898	3,420	9,104	−23.5	44,545	+106.1	389,923	+14.8
Delaware	248	182	−38.1	50	132	60	−58.3	603	+24.3	7,964	+7.8
Maryland	1,098	462	−32.9	236	226	636	−34.2	11,065	+248.5	42,525	+50.7
Dist. of Col	612	463	−25.3	198	265	149	+4.9	1,432	+7.6	18,144	−7.5
Virginia	2,672	958	−5.1	428	530	1,711	−23.7	3,312	+41.5	33,032	−1.7
West Virginia	699	243	−60.8	107	136	250	−68.9	5,573	+199.6	66,638	+19.5
North Carolina	3,230	1,634	−12.5	416	1,218	1,595	−14.1	11,554	+112.5	64,238	+26.6
South Carolina	1,300	370	−59.3	125	245	927	−30.6	2,308	+39.5	38,027	+9.4
Georgia	3,682	1,006	−42.1	338	668	2,675	−23.0	7,331	+62.0	73,451	+14.2
Florida	1,291	0	-------	0	0	1,101	+16.6	1,367	+68.8	45,904	+1.7
East South Central	7,842	2,340	−21.0	1,006	1,334	5,440	−18.9	22,151	+78.2	286,679	+7.6
Kentucky	1,860	433	−32.4	136	297	1,416	−3.5	1,663	−17.0	83,663	+1.4
Tennessee	1,819	994	+33.6	431	563	825	−44.6	5,934	+112.8	91,484	+5.3
Alabama	1,683	754	−50.7	334	420	881	+37.0	10,375	+116.3	69,366	+30.1
Mississippi	2,480	159	+224.5	105	54	2,318	−25.4	4,179	+47.0	42,166	−3.5
West South Central	29,483	23,911	−9.2	2,207	21,704	5,512	−7.1	33,218	+70.4	306,320	+8.9
Arkansas	1,238	983	−49.0	139	844	250	−7.4	2,758	+167.8	38,854	+12.5
Louisiana	3,290	2,618	+43.8	700	1,918	668	+18.7	5,692	+70.1	51,633	+11.3
Oklahoma	1,892	1,042	−39.8	64	978	849	−29.7	4,633	+74.2	79,891	+8.0
Texas	23,063	19,268	−7.6	1,304	17,964	3,745	−3.8	20,135	+61.7	135,942	+7.5
Mountain	6,959	3,021	−44.2	1,225	1,796	3,842	−29.9	11,467	+19.0	141,428	+17.4
Montana	1,061	316	−78.4	94	222	741	−36.9	921	+22.3	19,216	+14.0
Idaho	530	276	−47.6	105	171	254	−27.0	1,820	+51.2	15,754	+30.5
Wyoming	319	137	−27.5	25	112	131	−67.7	357	−13.1	5,209	+33.7
Colorado	1,963	854	−20.1	274	580	1,097	−31.8	3,346	−4.1	46,750	+14.4
New Mexico	831	279	−57.8	113	166	550	−16.2	888	−4.8	20,064	+7.5
Arizona	1,346	595	−22.7	425	170	726	+15.8	2,169	+40.9	15,406	+20.6
Utah	454	269	−49.2	65	204	183	−56.2	1,466	+59.2	15,588	+25.3
Nevada	455	295	+41.1	124	171	160	−33.6	500	+27.9	3,441	+18.3
Pacific	11,890	7,125	−40.6	3,101	4,024	4,756	−17.1	43,247	+49.8	291,401	+27.1
Washington	1,703	490	−41.7	146	344	1,209	−22.2	6,974	+46.5	62,135	+23.9
Oregon	1,299	437	−41.5	141	296	862	−3.9	8,370	+121.9	46,067	+32.7
California	8,888	6,198	−40.4	2,814	3,384	2,685	−18.4	27,903	+37.2	183,199	+26.9

[1] Includes 2,388 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, December 1937*—Continued

WOMEN

Division and State	Placements					New applications		Active file	
		Private							
	Total [1]	Number	Percent of change from November	Regular (over 1 month)	Temporary (1 month or less)	Number	Percent of change from November	Dec. 31	Percent of change from Nov. 30
United States	64,835	63,621	−3.9	25,466	38,155	112,009	+14.9	1,058,753	+5.4
New England	2,391	2,309	−9.1	1,135	1,174	18,612	+151.0	117,347	+20.7
Maine	85	81	+35.0	57	24	1,674	+268.7	4,012	+59.3
New Hampshire	286	282	+12.4	186	96	1,236	+115.0	5,571	+31.4
Vermont	225	224	+27.3	111	113	271	−12.3	1,792	+18.1
Massachusetts	528	524	−21.6	286	238	5,380	+86.7	70,637	+8.3
Rhode Island	364	310	+2.6	139	171	3,825	+216.4	14,429	+35.4
Connecticut	903	888	−17.9	356	532	6,226	+213.5	20,906	+60.5
Middle Atlantic	9,629	9,313	−15.0	3,173	6,140	19,896	+8.9	234,453	+3.8
New York	5,270	5,129	−17.7	1,539	3,590	7,722	−5.1	57,161	−2.4
New Jersey	1,875	1,873	−18.6	688	1,185	2,314	−33.3	35,383	+4.7
Pennsylvania	2,484	2,311	−4.4	946	1,365	9,860	+47.9	141,909	+6.3
East North Central	16,142	15,991	−5.7	6,486	9,505	18,125	−21.4	191,457	+1.6
Ohio	4,345	4,300	−1.5	1,756	2,544	3,581	−22.2	52,879	+.2
Indiana	1,707	1,694	−8.8	1,023	671	2,446	−30.6	19,649	−5.3
Illinois	6,681	6,625	−5.6	2,254	4,371	5,291	−29.8	64,617	+2.5
Michigan	1,485	1,475	−15.0	544	931	2,434	−4.4	23,860	+1.2
Wisconsin	1,924	1,897	−4.6	909	988	4,373	−9.6	30,452	+7.9
West North Central	6,427	6,332	−8.3	3,012	3,320	8,374	−13.6	96,939	+1.0
Minnesota	1,813	1,792	−10.0	942	850	2,023	−24.8	23,177	−3.7
Iowa	1,460	1,422	−11.5	589	833	1,364	−10.4	12,043	+5.5
Missouri	1,211	1,209	−6.7	646	563	2,218	−9.7	30,301	+3.9
North Dakota	829	826	+1.0	271	555	481	−37.5	5,729	+3.2
South Dakota	258	245	+6.5	75	170	489	+16.2	7,033	−7.7
Nebraska	478	470	−12.8	277	193	765	−17.7	7,684	+1.1
Kansas	378	368	−12.4	212	156	1,034	+14.1	10,972	+3.5
South Atlantic	6,745	6,541	−2.2	3,143	3,398	16,303	+54.2	137,340	+6.8
Delaware	358	358	−27.4	92	266	295	−10.6	2,769	−3.3
Maryland	551	549	+22.3	209	340	3,631	+177.0	10,879	+42.4
District of Columbia	1,269	1,241	+2.1	537	704	781	−32.1	8,704	−15.8
Virginia	1,009	969	+19.6	520	449	1,286	−28.2	14,172	−9.3
West Virginia	764	751	−6.5	376	375	1,408	+46.5	13,653	+12.0
North Carolina	1,596	1,575	+.6	849	726	6,334	+155.2	29,751	+24.3
South Carolina	257	244	−47.4	142	102	630	+23.8	14,224	+3.8
Georgia	872	854	−4.0	418	436	1,365	−17.6	26,454	+4.6
Florida	69	0	.....	0	0	573	+50.8	16,734	−1.6
East South Central	2,201	2,129	+.9	1,268	861	5,918	+32.3	82,275	+3.3
Kentucky	675	637	+9.1	316	321	884	−34.3	20,867	.0
Tennessee	1,037	1,035	+10.0	694	341	2,109	+36.2	25,355	+3.4
Alabama	443	414	−25.3	236	178	2,201	+83.7	18,994	+14.8
Mississippi	46	43	+43.3	22	21	724	+90.0	17,059	−3.5
West South Central	12,822	12,759	+7.9	3,069	9,690	11,069	+19.4	88,823	+.7
Arkansas	501	498	−26.3	269	229	657	+15.1	8,671	+3.3
Louisiana	1,077	1,070	−15.8	717	353	1,781	−3.0	13,183	+2.3
Oklahoma	927	897	−22.9	285	612	1,243	+27.0	18,164	+4.7
Texas	10,317	10,294	+18.1	1,798	8,496	7,388	+25.6	48,805	−1.5
Mountain	2,577	2,521	−3.0	1,221	1,300	2,941	−14.8	30,385	+5.7
Montana	103	93	−29.5	49	44	237	−11.2	4,117	+3.9
Idaho	310	306	−9.2	199	107	350	+14.0	2,108	+14.6
Wyoming	166	158	−11.2	58	100	197	+.5	1,180	+8.3
Colorado	829	810	+3.4	403	407	1,090	−19.7	12,276	+6.0
New Mexico	174	169	−24.9	122	47	216	−31.6	4,239	+3.3
Arizona	554	549	+16.3	268	281	431	+9.7	2,988	+7.6
Utah	336	332	−12.9	69	263	281	−41.6	2,820	+2.6
Nevada	105	104	+13.0	53	51	139	+4.5	657	+.8
Pacific	5,901	5,726	+1.8	2,959	2,767	10,771	−4.9	79,734	+11.5
Washington	477	452	−9.4	252	200	1,127	−15.6	9,457	+4.7
Oregon	248	238	−33.5	162	76	1,000	+20.2	8,878	+12.3
California	5,176	5,036	+5.7	2,545	2,491	8,644	−5.6	61,399	+12.5

[1] Includes 971 public placements and 243 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

TABLE 4.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, December 1937*

VETERANS

Division and State	Placements							New applications		Active file	
		Private				Public					
	Total[1]	Number	Percent of change from November	Regular (over 1 month)	Temporary (1 month or less)	Number	Percent of change from November	Number	Percent of change from November	Dec. 31	Percent of change from Nov. 30
United States	9,810	4,822	−32.7	1,317	3,505	4,673	−5.4	17,295	+55.0	267,915	+9.7
New England	389	148	−22.9	74	74	200	+3.1	2,211	+88.7	28,136	+14.4
Maine	35	11	+57.1	5	6	24	−4.0	254	+225.6	1,769	+36.8
New Hampshire	44	23	−42.5	16	7	21	−4.5	129	+81.7	1,460	+30.4
Vermont	22	8	−20.0	5	3	14	−22.2	50	+66.7	452	+33.7
Massachusetts	58	22	−48.8	14	8	36	−40.0	927	+43.7	18,229	+6.2
Rhode Island	65	15	−31.8	6	9	50	+316.7	238	+142.9	2,083	+22.9
Connecticut	165	69	−1.4	28	41	55	−3.5	613	+145.2	4,143	+39.0
Middle Atlantic	725	349	−39.6	84	265	345	−29.7	2,567	+81.3	55,020	+5.5
New York	392	241	−32.7	38	203	148	−44.2	644	+41.5	11,940	−6.2
New Jersey	88	45	−53.1	19	26	34	+47.8	400	+40.4	10,665	+8.0
Pennsylvania	245	63	−49.2	27	36	163	−19.7	1,523	+125.3	32,415	+9.7
East North Central	1,507	883	−37.1	282	601	543	−26.1	3,071	+26.4	55,771	+8.3
Ohio	477	231	−39.4	72	159	194	−23.0	702	+28.3	16,018	+9.7
Indiana	142	81	−2.4	32	49	61	+238.9	374	+12.0	6,468	+.2
Illinois	576	397	−38.6	112	285	178	−37.5	636	−9.8	17,477	+5.2
Michigan	141	81	−47.4	26	55	41	−21.2	710	+96.7	8,062	+14.1
Wisconsin	171	93	−32.6	40	53	69	−46.1	649	+34.6	7,746	+14.7
West North Central	1,854	630	−33.0	162	468	1,133	+35.9	1,286	+40.5	32,802	+6.0
Minnesota	233	134	−29.1	71	63	93	−54.9	345	+78.8	8,143	+2.7
Iowa	570	239	−39.5	34	205	247	+24.1	234	+11.4	4,352	+15.0
Missouri	653	68	−46.9	25	43	585	+383.5	397	+58.2	9,469	+7.5
North Dakota	72	54	+17.4	16	38	18	−58.1	33	−19.5	1,284	+4.1
South Dakota	89	33	−10.8	1	32	55	−52.6	41	+86.4	3,094	+.3
Nebraska	87	29	−39.6	7	22	58	−39.6	100	+2.0	2,624	+6.7
Kansas	150	73	−24.7	8	65	77	+45.3	136	+36.0	3,836	+5.2
South Atlantic	1,012	400	−31.3	131	269	573	−7.9	1,820	+98.3	24,406	+11.8
Delaware	29	28	+55.6	3	25	1	−87.5	19	+90.0	544	+8.6
Maryland	97	46	−32.4	21	25	51	−33.8	490	+214.1	3,004	+38.7
District of Columbia	92	68	−17.1	24	44	24	−11.1	129	+20.6	2,093	−6.8
Virginia	193	70	−16.7	30	40	123	+35.2	136	+30.8	1,780	+1.0
West Virginia	86	15	−71.7	5	10	48	−50.0	261	+153.4	3,893	+18.4
North Carolina	159	73	−18.9	23	50	86	+8.9	413	+96.7	3,218	+21.0
South Carolina	69	21	−65.0	3	18	46	−19.3	75	+27.1	1,947	+7.6
Georgia	217	79	−37.8	22	57	138	+1.5	249	+81.8	3,632	+15.5
Florida	70	0	-------	0	0	56	+9.8	48	+50.0	4,295	+.8
East South Central	577	162	−31.6	62	100	413	+3.5	942	+73.5	15,040	+6.7
Kentucky	233	49	−15.5	16	33	182	+51.7	74	−20.4	4,468	−1.8
Tennessee	116	39	−26.4	17	22	77	−42.5	310	+83.4	5,281	+5.5
Alabama	151	65	−46.7	26	39	86	+59.3	409	+108.7	3,685	+26.9
Mississippi	77	9	+125.0	3	6	68	−25.3	149	+75.3	1,606	−1.8
West South Central	1,581	1,073	−30.5	138	935	493	−4.1	1,313	+48.7	18,520	+7.2
Arkansas	110	74	−51.0	12	62	36	+20.0	139	+73.8	2,556	+16.1
Louisiana	218	157	+33.1	42	115	61	+45.2	273	+69.6	3,642	+6.7
Oklahoma	195	117	−43.5	9	108	78	−44.7	217	+85.5	4,657	+6.1
Texas	1,058	725	−32.1	75	650	318	+5.6	684	+30.3	7,665	+5.4
Mountain	687	296	−20.4	116	180	377	−21.8	765	+25.4	10,051	+18.0
Montana	98	18	−74.3	8	10	80	−20.8	67	+28.8	1,244	+20.2
Idaho	86	40	+5.3	17	23	46	−6.1	140	+70.7	1,199	+36.1
Wyoming	31	14	+16.7	0	14	13	−69.8	21	−27.6	401	+32.8
Colorado	162	69	−2.8	25	44	92	−24.6	198	−3.9	3,298	+11.2
New Mexico	57	15	−51.6	12	3	41	+20.6	22	−42.1	1,327	+9.0
Arizona	154	83	+2.5	44	39	64	+33.3	226	+76.6	1,235	+28.5
Utah	45	20	−42.9	3	17	24	−54.7	72	+44.0	1,169	+21.8
Nevada	54	37	+8.8	7	30	17	−46.9	19	−24.0	178	−11.0
Pacific	1,478	881	−33.4	268	613	596	−11.2	3,320	+46.1	28,169	+21.4
Washington	220	79	−4.8	22	57	141	−.7	416	+36.8	5,498	+20.1
Oregon	160	41	−50.0	7	34	119	−3.3	701	+107.4	4,760	+24.0
California	1,098	761	−34.2	239	522	336	−17.2	2,203	+35.1	17,911	+21.2

[1] Includes 315 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

Trend of Employment and Pay Rolls

SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR DECEMBER 1937

THERE were estimated decreases in December of 276,000 in employment and $15,300,000 in weekly pay rolls in all manufacturing industries combined and in the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed each month by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Approximately 747,000 fewer workers were employed by these industries in December 1937 than in the same month a year ago, and weekly pay rolls were $19,100,000 smaller than in December 1936. The average number employed in the year 1937, however, was over 1,000,000 higher than the average for the year 1936, and weekly pay rolls for 1937 were $50,900,000 larger.

A preliminary tabulation by the Interstate Commerce Commission showed that class I railroads employed 995,725 workers in December, exclusive of executives, officials, and staff assistants, a decrease of 52,050 since November.

Employment in the executive, judicial, and military services of the Federal Government was greater in December than in the preceding month, while employment in the legislative service decreased. An increase in the employment level occurred on Federal projects under The Works Program, projects operated by the Works Progress Administration, and on work projects of the National Youth Administration and Student Aid. Decreases in the number of workers employed occurred on P. W. A. construction projects, projects financed from regular Federal appropriations, and on projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. There was a decrease in the number of workers in the Civilian Conservation Corps.

Industrial and Business Employment

Decreased employment from November to December was shown in 13 of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and in 79 of the 89 manufacturing industries covered. Pay rolls were lower in 10 of the nonmanufacturing and 72 of the manufacturing industries.

For all manufacturing industries combined, it is estimated that 513,000 wage earners (6.4 percent) were laid off between November and December. Although employment declines in factories have been noted for December in 13 of the preceding 18 years, the present drop

was the largest with but one exception (1920). Because of the shortening of work schedules and the spreading of work, factory pay rolls fell more sharply than employment, the estimated decline in weekly wage disbursements being $17,600,000 or 9.6 percent.

A comparison with December 1936 shows that the factory employment level was 9.7 percent (797,000) lower in December 1937 and that weekly wage disbursements were 15 percent ($29,203,000) lower. The average employment index for 1937 was 99.3 on the basis of 100 for 1923–25, this being 8.1 percent above the 1936 level. In terms of workers the difference between the two levels was 624,000. The average 1937 pay-roll index was 98.0, a gain of 18.9 percent compared with the 1936 level. In terms of weekly wage disbursements, the increase was nearly $31,700,000.

The most pronounced percentage decreases in manufacturing employment from November to December were in industries for which sharp seasonal curtailment is generally reported in December. Beet-sugar plants, having passed the peak of seasonal activity, reduced their forces 42.0 percent and canning and preserving establishments reported a decline of 24.9 percent, reflecting seasonal reductions in operations. Radio and phonograph factories also reported a sharp seasonal decline (20.9 percent) in number of workers. Due to the decrease in production schedules, employment in the automobile industry declined 15.2 percent from November to December and weekly pay rolls fell 27.8 percent. Electric and steam railroad car-building companies reported 15.2 percent fewer employees in December, due primarily to the completion of orders on hand. The decrease of 15.2 percent in employment in the stove industry was somewhat larger than seasonal and the 14.8 percent decline in the stamped and enameled ware industry was also more pronounced than the usual December declines. Plants manufacturing plumbers' supplies reported a decrease (partly seasonal) of 11.0 percent in employment, and firms manufacturing jewelry reported a seasonal decline of 10.3 percent.

Decreases in employment ranging from 9.0 percent to 10.2 percent were reported in marble, slate, and granite works; in steam railroad repair shops; in sawmills; and in factories making brick, tile, and terra cotta; wirework; cottonseed oil, cake, and meal; and rayon.

Other industries of major importance in which substantial declines were shown included blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills; foundries and machine shops; men's clothing; glass; silk and rayon goods; cotton goods; and paper and pulp.

Among the 10 manufacturing industries reporting gains in numbers of workers over the month interval were fertilizers (8.3 percent), cane-sugar refining (6.6 percent), cast-iron pipe (4.0 percent), boots and shoes (3.7 percent), and woolen and worsted goods (2.1 percent). The increases in cane-sugar refining and wool were contraseasonal and the

gains in the remaining three industries were larger than seasonal. Smaller increases were reported in the millinery, fur-felt hat, electric railroad repair shop, slaughtering and meat packing, and chewing and smoking tobacco industries.

In the nonmanufacturing group retail trade was the only industry which increased employment to any appreciable extent. Christmas trade was largely responsible for the increase of 9.2 percent in employment in retail stores. The December index of employment in retail trade (100.1) was above the average for the year 1929 (100.0), and was at the highest level of any month since December 1930. The major portion of this increase was in the general merchandising group of retail establishments (department, variety, and general merchandising stores and mail-order houses) in which a gain of 31.8 percent or 284,000 workers was shown. Employment in this group in December 1937 exceeded the level of any preceding month, including December 1929. Employment in other lines of retail trade increased by 1.8 percent or approximately 46,500 workers. There were substantial employment gains in stores dealing in jewelry, apparel, hardware, furniture and housefurnishings, and in wood, coal, and ice firms. Retail lumber and building material dealers reported a greater-than-seasonal decline and retail automobile dealers also reported fewer workers. The important group, retail food stores, showed an employment decrease of 0.5 percent.

Anthracite mines reported a somewhat less-than-seasonal increase of 0.6 percent in employment from November to December and insurance firms hired a small additional number of workers. In the 13 nonmanufacturing industries reporting losses in employment, the most pronounced decline was in the private building-construction industry. While employment in this industry normally recedes from November to December, the current decrease of 17.2 percent is larger than the December decreases shown in 4 of the preceding 5 years for which data are available. Other industries in which substantial declines, largely seasonal, were reported were quarrying and nonmetallic mining (12.0 percent) and dyeing and cleaning (4.2 percent). Metal mines further reduced their working forces in December, employment falling 6.6 percent over the month interval. Bituminous-coal mines reported a decrease of 2.0 percent in number of workers and year-round hotels also reported a seasonal curtailment of 1.8 percent. In the remaining industries surveyed (crude-petroleum producing, telephone and telegraph, power and light and manufactured gas, electric railroad and motorbus operation, wholesale trade, laundries, and brokerage) the decreases ranged from 1.6 percent to 0.3 percent.

Aggregate employment in the combined 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed showed a net increase (237,000 workers) between November and December, and aggregate weekly pay rolls were

$2,300,000 greater in December than in the preceding month. Comparisons of the averages for 1937 with the averages for 1936 show that only one industry, anthracite mining, had fewer workers and smaller pay rolls in the current year. The 16 nonmanufacturing industries combined employed 382,600 more workers in 1937 than in 1936 and paid out $19,246,000 more per week in wages and salaries. The 1937 employment level exceeded the 1936 level by 27.4 percent in metalliferous mining, by 7.9 percent in the telephone and telegraph industry, and by 10.4 percent in private building construction. Gains in average employment between 1936 and 1937 ranging from 4.5 percent to 6.1 percent were shown in wholesale trade, retail trade, electric light and power, hotels, and laundries.

There were 52,050 fewer workers (exclusive of executives, officials, and staff assistants) employed by class 1 railroads in December than in November, according to a preliminary report of the Interstate Commerce Commission. This report showed 995,725 such workers on pay rolls in December, a decrease of 5.0 percent since November. December pay-roll figures were not available when this report was prepared. For November, the wage disbursements were $154,856,765, a decrease of 8.3 percent, or $14,081,513, from October.

Hours and earnings.—The average hours worked per week by factory wage earners was 34.4 in December, according to reports covering full- and part-time workers. This average was 3.1 percent below the November figure. Average hourly earnings fell 0.1 percent to 66.6 cents and average weekly earnings fell 3.4 percent to $22.93. Comparisons with December 1936 show that current average hours were 16.5 percent lower; average hourly earnings, 12.2 percent higher; and average weekly earnings, 5.9 percent lower than a year ago.

Of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hour data are available, 6 showed gains over the month interval in average hours worked per week and 5 showed increases in average hourly earnings. Average weekly earnings were higher in 6 of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries covered.

A summary of employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings in December 1937 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, and for class 1 railroads, with percentage changes over the month and year intervals, except in the few industries for which data are not available, is presented in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, December 1937 (Preliminary Figures)*

Industry	Employment			Pay roll			Average weekly earnings		
	Index December 1937	Percentage change from—		Index December 1937	Percentage change from—		Average in December 1937	Percentage change from—	
		November 1937	December 1936		November 1937	December 1936		November 1937	December 1936
	(*1923–25 =100*)			(*1923–25 =100*)					
All manufacturing industries combined [1]	88.6	−6.4	−9.7	80.9	−9.6	−15.0	$22.93	−3.4	−5.9
Class I steam railroads [2]	56.4	−5.1	−6.9	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
	(*1929= 100*)			(*1929= 100*)					
Coal mining:									
Anthracite	50.9	+.6	−7.2	47.2	+4.6	−14.8	27.02	+3.9	−8.2
Bituminous	80.5	−2.0	−4.0	81.3	+4.4	−4.5	25.49	+6.5	−.4
Metalliferous mining	70.4	−6.6	+9.4	65.1	−9.0	+12.9	29.43	−2.5	+3.2
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	43.9	−12.0	−11.2	33.4	−20.1	−15.3	19.32	−9.2	−4.7
Crude-petroleum producing	76.5	−.9	+5.6	69.8	−.7	+13.9	34.11	+.3	+7.8
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph	78.0	−1.1	+5.9	94.7	+3.6	+14.9	31.44	+4.7	+8.5
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	96.1	−1.2	+3.0	102.4	−1.4	+9.1	34.38	−.2	+5.9
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance	72.8	−.5	+.4	71.9	+.1	+3.7	32.26	+.6	+3.2
Trade:									
Wholesale	93.3	−.3	+2.5	77.8	−.7	+6.9	30.00	−.4	+4.3
Retail	100.1	+9.2	+.5	80.6	+7.0	+6.2	21.55	−2.0	+5.6
General merchandising	144.7	+31.8	+.9	123.5	+27.2	+6.3	18.59	−3.5	+5.3
Other than general merchandising	88.4	+1.8	+.4	71.7	+1.3	+6.2	24.57	−.5	+5.8
Hotels (year-round) [4]	87.3	−1.8	+3.9	76.3	−2.0	+9.3	15.25	−.2	+5.1
Laundries	87.3	−.8	−.3	79.2	+[5]	+4.0	17.03	+.8	+4.4
Dyeing and cleaning	77.1	−4.2	−.7	58.9	−6.9	+2.7	19.09	−2.8	+3.4
Brokerage	[3]	−1.6	−6.9	[3]	−2.6	−6.1	38.36	−1.0	+.9
Insurance	[3]	+.2	+1.8	[3]	−.8	+4.3	38.91	−.9	+2.5
Building construction	[3]	−17.2	−13.9	[3]	−22.7	−10.9	28.53	−6.7	+3.5

[1] Revised indexes; adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures.
[2] Preliminary; source—Interstate Commerce Commission.
[3] Not available.
[4] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.
[5] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Public Employment

During the month ending on December 15, 105,000 workers were employed on P. W. A. construction projects. Compared with the period ending in mid-November this represented a decrease of 16,000 or 13.5 percent. Employment reductions on this work, as on other construction programs, was in part seasonal. Federal and non-Federal N. I. R. A. projects employed more than 34,000 workers; and projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds, 70,000. Pay-roll disbursements on all P. W. A. projects totaled $8,990,000.

Construction projects financed from regular Federal appropriations employed 181,000 workers. This was a decrease of over 30,000 compared with the period ending in mid-November. The decreases reported on nonresidential building construction, forestry, public

roads, dredging, dikes, and revetments, naval vessels, and miscellaneous projects offset increases in employment on electrification projects, locks and dams, ship construction and repair other than naval vessels, and streets and roads. Employment on residential building-construction projects, underpasses, and water and sewerage construction projects remained virtually the same. Pay-roll disbursements amounted to $17,162,000, a reduction of $3,142,000 from the preceding month.

Employment on construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation totaled 4,000 for the period from mid-November to mid-December. Decreases were shown in the number of workers employed on building construction and water and sewerage projects, while an increase occurred on miscellaneous projects. Pay-roll disbursements amounting to $550,000 were $52,000 less than during the period ending in mid-November.

With the expansion of The Works Program to meet increasing unemployment, the number of workers engaged on projects of The Works Program was 2,280,000 in December, a net increase of more than 118,000 since November. Of the total number working on this program, 186,000 were employed on Federal projects under The Works Program, 1,668,000 on projects operated by the Works Progress Administration, and 426,000 on work projects of the National Youth Administration and on Student Aid. Pay rolls for the program as a whole totaled $98,980,000 and were $1,199,000 greater than in November.

In the regular services of the Federal Government increases in employment were reported in the executive, judicial, and military services, while employment in the legislative service decreased. Of the 889,000 employees in the executive service in December, 114,000 were working in the District of Columbia and 775,000 outside the District. Approximately 85.2 percent of the total number of employees in the executive service were paid from regular appropriations and 7.1 percent from emergency funds. Day labor hired by the Federal Government for construction work (force-account) was 7.7 percent of the total employment in the executive service. Among the departments reporting pronounced increases in employment were the Post Office Department, the Department of Commerce, and the Department of the Interior. Decreases occurred in the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Labor.

Workers employed in the Civilian Conservation Corps numbered 338,000, a decrease of more than 12,000 compared with November. Decreases in employment were registered for all groups of workers with the exception of nurses. There was virtually no change in the number of nurses. Of the total number in camps during the current month 292,000 were enrolled workers, 5,000 reserve officers, 300

nurses, 2,000 educational advisers, and 39,000 other supervisory and technical workers. Pay rolls for all groups of workers exceeded $16,070,000.

For the month ending December 15, 170,000 workers were employed on road projects financed wholly from State funds, more than 22,000 less than during the preceding period. Of the total, 24,000, or 14 percent, were working on new construction and 146,000, or 86 percent, on maintenance and repairs. Pay-roll disbursements for both types of work amounted to $10,377,000.

A summary of Federal employment and pay-roll statistics for November and December is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Federal Employment and Pay Rolls, December 1937* [1]
(Preliminary Figures)

Class	Employment		Percentage change	Pay rolls		Percentage change
	December	November		December	November	
Federal services:						
Executive [2]	889,550	[3] 821,271	+8.3	$137,217,360	[3] $124,664,980	+10.1
Judicial	2,008	1,999	+.5	514,920	547,685	−6.0
Legislative	5,188	5,345	−2.9	1,209,723	1,219,978	−.8
Military	326,667	323,403	+1.0	25,856,294	24,659,262	+4.9
Construction projects:						
Financed by P. W. A.[4]	104,718	121,102	−13.5	8,989,667	10,959,110	−18.0
Financed by R. F. C.[5]	4,028	4,421	−8.9	550,135	602,221	−8.7
Financed by regular Federal appropriations	180,594	211,004	−14.4	17,162,379	20,303,903	−15.5
Federal projects under The Works Program	186,133	184,654	+.8	10,173,186	10,857,382	−6.3
Projects operated by W. P. A.	1,668,085	1,566,697	+6.5	84,570,148	82,714,339	+2.2
National Youth Administration:						
Works project	137,929	[3] 126,852	+8.7	2,397,423	[3] 2,232,473	+7.4
Student Aid	288,131	[3] 283,269	+1.7	1,839,242	[3] 1,976,864	−7.0
Civilian Conservation Corps	338,217	350,714	−3.6	16,070,030	16,335,123	−1.6

[1] Includes data on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds.
[2] Includes force-account and supervisory and technical employees shown under other classifications to the extent of 109,488 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $13,385,359 for December and 112,827 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $13,706,612 for November.
[3] Revised.
[4] Data covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds are included. These data are not shown under The Works Program. Includes 70,228 wage earners and $5,685,040 pay roll for December; 80,541 wage earners and $6,814,004 pay roll for November covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds.
[5] Includes 116 employees and $9,760 pay-roll disbursements for December and 167 employees and $11,824 pay-roll disbursements for November on projects financed by the RFC Mortgage Co.

DETAILED REPORTS FOR NOVEMBER 1937

Industrial and Business Employment

A MONTHLY report on employment and pay rolls is published as a separate pamphlet by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This gives detailed data regarding employment, pay rolls, working hours, and earnings for the current month for industrial and business establishments and for the various forms of public employment. This pamphlet is distributed free upon request. Its principal contents for the month of November, insofar as industrial and business employment

is concerned, are reproduced in this section of the Monthly Labor Review.

Figures on employment and pay rolls are available for the following groups: 89 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction: and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first two of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and in virtually all industries the samples are large enough to be entirely representative. The figures on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission and are presented in the foregoing summary.

EMPLOYMENT, PAY ROLLS, HOURS, AND EARNINGS

The indexes of employment and pay rolls, average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries in November 1937, as well as in September and October, are presented in table 1. The September and October figures may differ in some instances from those previously published because of revisions necessitated by the inclusion of late reports and other causes.

Average weekly earnings shown in table 1 are computed by dividing the total weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As all reporting establishments do not supply man-hour data, average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings are necessarily based on data supplied by a smaller number of reporting firms. The size and composition of the reporting sample varies slightly from month to month and therefore the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown in the two following tables are not strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movements of earnings and hours over the period shown.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, November, October, and September, 1937*

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, November, October, and September, 1937*

MANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 3-year average 1923-25=100 and are adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures. Not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to October 1936. Comparable series available on request]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	November 1937	October 1937	September 1937	November 1937	October 1937	September 1937	November 1937	October 1937	September 1937	November 1937	October 1937	September 1937	November 1937	October 1937	September 1937
													Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing industries	**94.7**	**100.5**	**102.1**	**89.5**	**100.1**	**100.1**	**$23.92**	**$25.39**	**$24.92**	**35.4**	**37.6**	**37.4**	**66.7**	**66.6**	**65.8**
Durable goods	**92.4**	**97.6**	**97.3**	**89.9**	**101.7**	**99.4**	**26.80**	**28.83**	**28.18**	**36.4**	**39.1**	**38.6**	**73.3**	**73.0**	**72.4**
Nondurable goods	**97.3**	**103.6**	**107.3**	**89.0**	**98.2**	**100.9**	**20.54**	**21.37**	**21.30**	**34.4**	**35.9**	**36.1**	**59.6**	**59.6**	**59.0**
Durable goods															
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	**98.1**	**105.8**	**108.8**	**85.7**	**106.8**	**112.8**	**24.64**	**28.50**	**29.37**	**32.6**	**37.0**	**37.8**	**76.3**	**76.8**	**76.8**
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	108.6	117.5	121.4	92.9	118.9	129.7	25.33	29.96	31.65	30.7	35.7	37.5	82.8	83.7	84.2
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	80.5	84.8	87.5	78.7	96.9	96.9	22.34	25.94	25.21	32.3	38.2	37.6	69.2	68.0	67.3
Cast-iron pipe	57.9	62.1	64.9	42.6	46.3	48.9	19.68	19.98	20.15	33.5	34.4	35.1	58.5	57.7	56.7
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	88.3	89.8	89.9	80.5	85.9	86.7	22.94	24.06	24.32	38.9	40.4	40.7	60.2	60.6	61.0
Forgings, iron, and steel	64.7	71.6	73.0	55.8	67.6	69.6	26.22	28.86	29.23	35.6	39.5	39.7	74.1	73.3	73.9
Hardware	91.5	94.4	92.6	99.9	114.5	101.4	24.55	27.26	24.58	35.4	39.3	36.5	69.4	69.3	67.2
Plumbers' supplies	89.6	93.6	94.5	63.5	76.2	72.7	22.45	25.83	24.57	33.6	39.0	37.2	66.8	66.4	65.9
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	66.3	73.5	77.4	53.1	66.6	72.2	23.18	26.24	26.97	33.1	37.7	38.7	69.8	69.4	69.7
Stoves	91.1	108.3	113.4	65.0	94.2	97.8	21.02	25.59	25.37	32.3	39.3	38.9	65.5	65.4	65.3
Structural and ornamental metalwork	75.0	79.1	82.3	74.5	81.6	83.9	27.99	29.04	28.69	39.3	40.9	40.7	71.4	71.2	70.6
Tin cans and other tinware	96.8	100.8	114.0	99.8	107.5	122.6	23.07	23.85	23.97	37.5	38.6	39.7	61.9	62.0	60.8
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	91.7	97.0	98.4	90.3	100.7	103.6	22.95	24.20	24.54	36.7	39.0	39.7	62.2	61.9	61.6
Wirework	179.5	187.2	170.3	162.3	202.3	166.8	23.00	26.79	24.47	33.5	37.9	35.6	68.7	70.8	68.7
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	**121.4**	**128.9**	**130.7**	**121.2**	**134.2**	**134.3**	**27.79**	**28.86**	**28.47**	**37.9**	**39.9**	**39.7**	**72.6**	**72.0**	**71.6**
Agricultural implements	143.0	150.5	147.2	184.5	203.5	189.2	28.74	30.14	28.78	38.9	40.6	38.8	74.1	74.5	74.4
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines	133.6	136.3	136.5	141.2	148.4	146.5	32.61	33.61	33.20	39.7	41.1	40.9	82.7	82.5	81.9
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	113.1	119.3	121.3	114.3	124.8	124.1	27.74	28.65	28.05	37.2	39.0	38.4	74.6	73.6	73.1

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, November, October, and September 1937*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	November 1937	October 1937	September 1937	November 1937	October 1937	September 1937	November 1937	October 1937	September 1937	November 1937	October 1937	September 1937	November 1937	October 1937	September 1937
Durable goods—Continued															
Machinery, not including transportation equipment—Continued.													*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Engines, turbines, tractors, and water wheels	147.8	152.5	153.6	155.0	159.4	158.8	$32.38	$32.36	$32.00	39.3	39.4	39.2	82.8	82.5	82.2
Foundry and machine-shop products	104.8	110.4	111.9	101.8	113.5	114.2	27.12	28.69	28.42	38.3	40.6	40.4	70.8	70.6	70.3
Machine tools	153.9	157.7	157.6	157.9	170.3	165.5	31.63	33.31	32.36	42.9	45.1	44.2	73.8	73.9	73.3
Radios and phonographs	156.7	200.5	208.3	123.0	165.5	173.9	20.74	21.67	21.94	33.2	35.6	36.9	62.5	61.1	60.0
Textile machinery and parts	77.7	82.8	84.0	70.2	80.9	85.2	24.50	26.26	27.18	37.0	39.3	41.3	66.6	67.2	65.9
Typewriters and parts	138.4	147.9	151.2	106.0	128.4	142.8	20.43	23.17	25.20	32.5	37.0	39.5	62.7	62.6	63.8
Transportation equipment	121.8	122.7	107.0	120.0	129.9	104.4	31.03	33.37	30.57	35.1	37.7	35.0	88.9	88.6	87.4
Aircraft	795.0	784.0	766.8	725.3	723.0	670.4	27.89	28.17	26.71	39.7	40.6	38.5	70.2	69.5	69.3
Automobiles	133.2	133.9	112.5	125.8	138.3	105.6	31.23	34.07	30.93	34.3	37.3	34.2	91.3	91.4	90.4
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	65.8	67.9	68.5	81.1	82.5	79.7	29.61	29.13	27.89	38.5	38.9	37.4	76.9	74.8	74.7
Locomotives	61.6	64.1	64.4	51.4	56.0	55.0	32.47	34.08	33.28	41.4	44.0	43.7	78.5	77.4	76.1
Shipbuilding	105.9	106.8	106.2	121.4	124.4	119.0	31.02	31.54	30.34	36.9	37.3	35.8	83.8	83.0	83.2
Railroad repair shops	57.4	59.0	60.4	63.3	64.9	63.1	31.61	31.58	30.05	43.0	43.2	41.0	73.6	73.4	73.4
Electric railroad	63.1	63.3	63.4	68.2	68.0	67.7	30.63	30.46	30.24	43.6	43.7	43.6	68.5	68.0	67.9
Steam railroad	57.0	58.7	60.2	63.0	64.9	62.9	31.78	31.76	30.02	43.0	43.2	40.8	74.1	73.8	73.8
Nonferrous metals and their products	108.4	112.7	114.1	99.9	109.9	110.1	24.63	26.18	25.95	37.3	39.7	39.1	65.9	65.8	66.0
Aluminum manufactures	123.5	104.7	131.0	127.8	115.9	135.7	25.82	27.63	26.05	38.5	40.4	39.5	67.2	68.4	66.0
Brass, bronze, and copper products	105.5	113.1	114.8	92.1	106.7	113.2	24.77	26.76	27.94	33.7	36.7	38.1	73.4	73.0	73.4
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	125.0	127.5	127.0	122.3	132.7	128.0	22.22	23.62	22.91	38.6	41.1	40.1	57.6	57.5	57.2
Jewelry	100.3	106.4	101.1	78.8	89.4	81.7	24.09	25.80	24.73	40.3	43.2	40.7	58.9	59.2	60.0
Lighting equipment	95.6	100.1	97.2	94.4	104.3	98.5	25.07	26.18	25.50	38.3	39.9	39.1	65.4	65.7	65.4
Silverware and plated ware	79.3	80.8	79.5	72.6	80.7	81.4	24.84	27.10	27.81	38.8	42.4	43.5	64.1	64.3	64.7
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	88.0	92.1	93.0	83.8	90.9	88.6	27.90	29.10	28.01	39.9	41.7	40.2	69.8	69.8	69.7
Stamped and enameled ware	144.0	154.0	153.2	141.5	156.4	149.2	22.76	23.70	22.69	37.1	39.1	37.3	61.2	60.6	60.9
Lumber and allied products	63.5	69.5	71.8	55.1	65.3	68.2	19.48	21.23	21.41	37.2	40.3	40.3	52.8	53.3	53.8
Furniture	79.5	86.8	89.1	65.8	76.8	78.2	19.66	21.11	20.85	37.0	40.4	40.5	53.2	52.4	51.6
Lumber:															
Millwork	51.2	54.3	55.6	46.3	51.7	53.2	20.58	21.90	22.09	37.7	40.2	40.8	54.7	54.5	54.3
Sawmills	47.6	52.7	54.7	40.4	49.4	52.6	18.99	21.13	21.65	37.3	40.2	40.0	52.0	53.6	55.0
Stone, clay, and glass products	68.2	71.4	72.7	63.6	69.6	69.9	23.71	24.74	24.38	36.5	38.7	38.3	64.4	63.9	64.3
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	45.5	50.0	52.3	36.4	44.2	46.4	19.18	21.19	21.64	35.8	39.6	39.4	53.4	53.3	54.9
							25.73	26.34	26.20	38.2	39.1	38.5	67.4	67.3	68.0

Stone, clay, and glass products	68.2	71.4	72.7	63.6	69.6	69.9	23.71	24.74	24.38	36.5	35.7	35.3	64.4	63.9	64.3
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	45.5	50.0	52.3	36.4	44.2	46.4	19.18	21.19	21.64	35.8	39.6	39.4	53.4	53.3	54.9
Cement	66.1	69.2	69.9	67.3	72.2	72.8	25.73	26.34	26.20	38.2	39.1	38.5	67.4	67.3	68.0
Glass	106.7	109.9	111.1	111.9	119.2	118.7	25.21	26.10	25.68	35.8	37.5	36.8	70.5	70.0	70.0
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	42.1	43.4	44.9	34.6	37.8	39.8	23.88	25.37	25.71	36.2	38.7	38.7	66.3	66.2	66.9
Pottery	76.9	78.6	77.0	70.0	72.9	66.8	24.05	24.29	22.71	37.9	39.8	39.4	63.1	62.1	61.6
Nondurable goods															
Textiles and their products	92.0	96.8	101.6	71.5	84.2	87.1	15.37	16.87	16.99	30.6	32.8	33.2	50.9	52.1	51.6
Fabrics	87.2	91.9	94.9	71.5	81.0	85.3	15.24	16.45	16.79	31.5	33.6	34.4	49.2	49.4	49.2
Carpets and rugs	85.7	88.7	99.4	49.7	64.2	84.5	13.77	17.07	20.05	21.2	26.4	30.8	64.9	64.6	65.0
Cotton goods	91.1	93.9	98.4	76.8	85.1	92.5	13.25	14.30	14.84	31.5	33.7	34.9	42.1	42.4	42.4
Cotton small wares	91.2	98.4	97.8	79.0	96.8	95.9	16.10	18.35	18.02	33.1	37.1	37.0	50.0	50.3	49.6
Dyeing and finishing textiles	108.8	112.2	110.5	89.0	94.6	94.9	19.87	20.49	20.86	34.4	35.3	36.3	57.6	57.5	57.1
Hats, fur-felt	83.0	83.0	85.5	61.0	62.0	69.2	19.96	20.20	21.92	28.2	26.7	30.8	71.6	72.4	70.9
Knit goods	111.9	116.3	116.5	112.3	122.8	116.9	17.40	18.33	17.43	33.7	35.6	34.3	52.4	52.3	52.0
Silk and rayon goods	67.6	75.4	79.9	50.8	62.4	68.2	14.54	16.02	16.55	31.7	34.2	35.1	46.2	46.9	46.9
Woolen and worsted goods	59.8	68.4	70.4	42.8	52.8	57.6	16.43	17.73	18.82	27.7	30.3	32.1	59.4	58.6	58.9
Wearing apparel	101.0	112.1	114.4	68.6	87.0	87.0	15.74	17.99	17.53	28.9	31.3	30.8	54.3	57.4	56.3
Clothing, men's	90.7	103.5	108.7	61.1	80.2	83.9	15.82	18.14	18.12	26.1	29.5	29.8	61.1	62.1	61.7
Clothing, women's	134.9	150.4	152.2	84.2	110.1	106.3	17.25	20.29	18.94	29.2	31.2	30.1	55.5	61.7	58.4
Corsets and allied garments	88.1	89.7	88.9	82.1	87.3	84.2	15.52	16.17	15.62	33.6	33.3	32.6	46.0	47.8	47.5
Men's furnishings	130.4	135.9	127.7	103.8	111.8	95.4	14.36	14.79	13.43	32.8	35.6	31.6	37.3	37.6	38.1
Millinery	43.8	52.0	56.7	26.7	35.5	49.0	17.40	20.30	25.05						
Shirts and collars	114.6	120.7	119.2	102.6	112.5	103.0	13.14	13.97	12.88	33.1	34.7	32.8	40.4	40.8	40.4
Leather and its manufactures	80.3	89.5	92.7	53.8	66.3	71.6	15.48	17.14	17.94	28.6	31.8	32.9	54.5	54.2	55.0
Boots and shoes	80.8	90.7	94.0	46.0	58.7	64.5	13.72	15.50	16.49	26.9	30.4	31.7	52.3	51.9	53.0
Leather	82.9	89.6	92.5	82.7	95.0	98.6	22.13	23.60	23.70	35.2	37.5	37.7	62.8	63.3	63.0
Food and kindred products	114.6	125.0	137.8	115.9	125.0	133.2	24.46	23.77	23.03	40.3	40.9	40.5	60.2	58.8	57.9
Baking	135.2	138.4	136.7	130.3	137.3	136.1	25.10	25.84	25.90	41.4	43.0	42.8	61.1	60.6	60.8
Beverages	194.3	202.7	223.3	212.7	222.4	253.0	32.22	32.36	33.27	38.8	39.2	40.2	84.2	83.5	83.2
Butter	83.7	86.4	91.6	67.2	70.3	73.8	22.42	22.71	22.35						
Canning and preserving	118.7	185.9	311.5	111.4	187.7	307.1	15.74	16.24	15.75	33.8	36.3	36.9	47.8	46.5	44.3
Confectionery	91.8	95.5	85.4	89.8	98.4	89.0	17.63	18.62	18.79	38.7	41.3	40.8	45.6	45.5	46.5
Flour	76.0	76.9	76.8	76.7	80.9	80.7	26.10	27.30	27.15	43.7	45.6	45.3	58.8	59.0	59.2
Ice cream	65.1	68.8	82.2	61.5	63.9	74.0	29.16	28.54	27.83	46.5	46.1	46.3	61.3	60.1	59.7
Slaughtering and meat packing	90.5	89.4	86.8	102.3	100.1	98.0	28.31	28.01	28.35	41.1	40.8	41.1	68.1	68.8	69.1
Sugar, beet	252.1	253.0	91.6	267.4	224.3	100.7	25.09	20.97	26.01	49.6	41.6	44.7	50.8	52.4	59.6
Sugar refining, cane	70.4	68.8	67.2	66.8	64.2	60.1	26.41	25.97	24.96	40.9	38.5	36.2	62.8	66.8	69.0
Tobacco manufactures	62.9	62.6	62.1	57.2	57.9	56.5	16.72	17.03	17.12	37.4	37.6	37.0	44.9	45.1	46.0
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	56.7	56.2	55.8	63.8	68.2	70.0	17.06	18.20	18.81	33.5	35.8	37.2	51.1	51.3	51.0
Cigars and cigarettes	63.6	63.3	62.8	56.4	56.6	54.9	16.66	16.80	16.79	37.9	37.9	37.0	44.2	44.4	45.5
Paper and printing	106.4	107.9	107.7	101.5	105.1	103.7	27.48	28.26	27.89	37.7	38.7	38.4	75.7	75.6	75.1
Boxes, paper	103.3	104.8	102.8	102.6	108.9	103.3	20.42	21.35	20.53	39.0	40.8	39.2	52.8	52.7	52.8
Paper and pulp	113.6	117.3	119.1	105.4	116.7	117.6	23.26	24.90	24.71	36.9	39.5	39.2	63.2	63.1	63.0
Printing and publishing:															
Book and job	98.3	98.8	98.9	93.1	92.6	92.8	29.96	29.71	29.69	38.7	38.3	38.6	78.5	78.5	77.9
Newspapers and periodicals	107.0	107.5	105.9	106.1	107.3	103.8	37.42	37.59	37.03	37.1	37.1	36.9	97.1	97.4	96.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, November, October, and September, 1937*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	November 1937	October 1937	September 1937	November 1937	October 1937	September 1937	November 1937	October 1937	September 1937	November 1937	October 1937	September 1937	November 1937	October 1937	September 1937
Nondurable goods—Continued															
Chemicals and allied products, and petroleum refining	**122.7**	**126.5**	**128.6**	**132.1**	**137.5**	**139.0**	**$28.07**	**$28.32**	**$28.19**	**38.5**	**39.2**	**39.0**	*Cents* 73.8	*Cents* 73.4	*Cents* 74.0
Other than petroleum refining	122.4	126.7	128.9	129.6	136.1	137.7	25.59	25.99	25.92	39.5	40.3	40.2	65.8	65.4	66.1
Chemicals	129.8	135.2	137.4	141.7	150.6	150.9	30.25	30.84	30.47	38.7	39.6	38.9	78.2	77.9	78.4
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	121.0	127.1	120.7	113.0	118.9	112.4	13.18	13.14	13.14	53.5	54.1	53.2	24.8	24.5	24.9
Druggists' preparations	112.5	114.8	114.1	125.8	128.9	127.3	24.33	24.47	24.29	39.2	39.6	40.8	58.3	58.4	57.8
Explosives	95.4	97.3	97.6	106.6	110.5	106.4	31.64	32.18	30.89	39.7	40.5	38.9	79.8	79.5	79.5
Fertilizers	75.3	80.5	84.6	77.4	83.2	97.2	17.02	17.16	19.16	38.6	38.8	41.1	44.1	44.2	46.7
Paints and varnishes	128.0	131.6	132.4	124.8	134.1	131.6	26.95	28.17	27.53	38.8	40.5	39.6	69.6	69.7	69.6
Rayon and allied products	374.0	387.5	407.1	360.3	374.9	393.6	23.79	23.89	23.88	37.0	37.4	38.4	64.4	63.8	64.6
Soap	100.4	102.8	103.1	116.9	121.1	122.1	28.23	28.55	28.68	39.2	40.0	39.9	72.4	71.9	72.7
Petroleum refining	123.9	125.7	127.2	140.4	142.3	143.1	34.42	34.43	34.16	35.8	35.9	35.5	97.0	96.9	97.4
Rubber products	**90.9**	**97.7**	**98.0**	**82.0**	**94.3**	**97.4**	**24.11**	**25.83**	**26.64**	**31.6**	**33.8**	**34.5**	**79.0**	**79.0**	**79.1**
Rubber boots and shoes	71.9	77.5	78.7	62.1	70.4	75.9	21.70	22.83	24.24	35.9	37.5	40.0	60.4	60.9	60.6
Rubber goods, other than boots, shoes, tires, and inner tubes	128.2	137.3	134.7	121.7	139.5	132.6	21.93	23.61	22.60	36.0	38.8	37.5	60.9	61.4	60.6
Rubber tires and inner tubes	80.8	87.0	88.3	72.9	84.3	90.4	26.26	28.24	29.76	27.2	29.3	30.8	97.2	96.6	97.0

NONMANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 12-month average 1929=100]

Coal mining:															
Anthracite	50.5	51.0	48.2	45.1	51.0	31.5	$26.00	$29.14	$18.99	28.3	31.4	20.8	90.7	91.2	90.8
Bituminous	82.1	82.9	80.5	77.8	86.0	77.7	24.00	26.25	24.37	26.9	29.6	27.5	87.8	88.7	89.0
Metalliferous mining	75.4	82.9	84.1	71.6	81.7	82.2	30.05	31.26	31.22	43.1	44.2	43.6	69.9	70.8	71.6
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	49.9	53.3	54.7	41.7	49.3	50.1	21.48	23.70	22.86	38.9	42.6	42.1	55.0	55.4	53.9
Crude-petroleum producing	77.2	77.5	78.2	70.2	69.9	71.2	34.12	33.64	33.93	39.9	39.9	40.0	84.3	83.3	83.9
Public utilities:															
Telephone and telegraph	79.1	79.9	80.1	91.1	94.3	92.3	30.57	31.44	31.58	38.6	39.9	39.1	84.9	83.5	83.9

Public utilities:															
Telephone and telegraph	79.1	79.9	80.1	91.1	94.3	92.3	30.57	31.44	31.58	38.6	39.9	39.1	84.9	83.5	83.9
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	97.3	98.5	98.6	103.8	105.3	104.0	34.44	34.23	33.96	40.4	40.4	40.2	85.8	85.1	85.2
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance	73.2	73.4	73.7	71.9	71.4	71.6	32.21	31.93	31.71	45.9	45.9	46.0	69.4	68.7	68.1
Trade:															
Wholesale	93.5	94.0	93.0	78.3	79.3	78.3	30.27	30.45	30.60	42.7	42.9	42.6	70.6	70.6	71.7
Retail	91.7	92.1	90.7	75.3	75.9	74.4	21.65	21.96	21.87	42.7	43.0	42.7	55.9	56.5	56.2
General merchandising	109.8	108.1	103.7	97.1	96.2	92.4	18.37	18.55	18.62	39.2	39.4	39.1	51.2	51.5	51.6
Other than general merchandising	86.9	87.9	87.3	70.8	71.7	70.7	24.55	24.89	24.64	43.9	44.2	43.9	57.5	58.1	57.6
Hotels (year-round) [2]	88.9	89.2	88.1	77.9	77.7	76.1	15.25	15.11	15.00	47.2	47.1	47.4	32.2	31.7	31.6
Laundries	88.0	89.9	93.7	79.2	81.5	84.4	16.90	16.96	16.84	41.6	42.1	42.5	40.7	40.3	39.7
Dyeing and cleaning	80.0	85.3	86.7	62.9	71.4	72.8	19.55	20.78	20.61	40.8	42.6	43.9	49.1	49.9	47.4
Brokerage [3]	+.8	−2.9	−1.9	+1.1	−3.2	−2.5	38.60	38.52	38.77	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Insurance [3]	−.1	−.1	−.2	+1.8	+.3	−2.4	39.15	38.45	38.59	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Building construction [3]	−6.4	−3.3	−.7	−8.1	−3.0	−2.2	30.52	31.22	31.76	33.1	34.3	34.1	91.6	90.8	92.8

[1] Average weekly earnings are computed from figures furnished by all reporting establishments. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments as all reporting firms do not furnish man-hours. The figures are not strictly comparable from month to month because of changes in the size and composition of the reporting sample.

[2] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

[3] Indexes of employment and pay rolls not available; percentage changes from preceding month substituted.

[4] Not available.

INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS, JANUARY 1936 TO NOVEMBER 1937

Indexes of employment and pay rolls are given in tables 2 and 3 for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for 13 nonmanufacturing industries, including 2 subgroups under retail trade, by months, from January 1936 to November 1937, inclusive. The accompanying chart indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to November 1937.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are computed from returns supplied by representative establishments in 89 manufacturing industries and cover wage earners only. The base used in computing these indexes is the 3-year average, 1923–25, as 100. In November 1937 reports were received from 25,315 manufacturing establishments employing 4,684,590 workers, whose weekly earnings were $112,034,042. The employment reports received from these establishments cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 89 industries included in the monthly survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The indexes for nonmanufacturing industries are based on the 12-month average for 1929 as 100. Figures for mining, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and building construction cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, trade, hotels, brokerage, and insurance relate to all employees, including executives. For crude-petroleum producing they cover wage earners and clerical field force.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

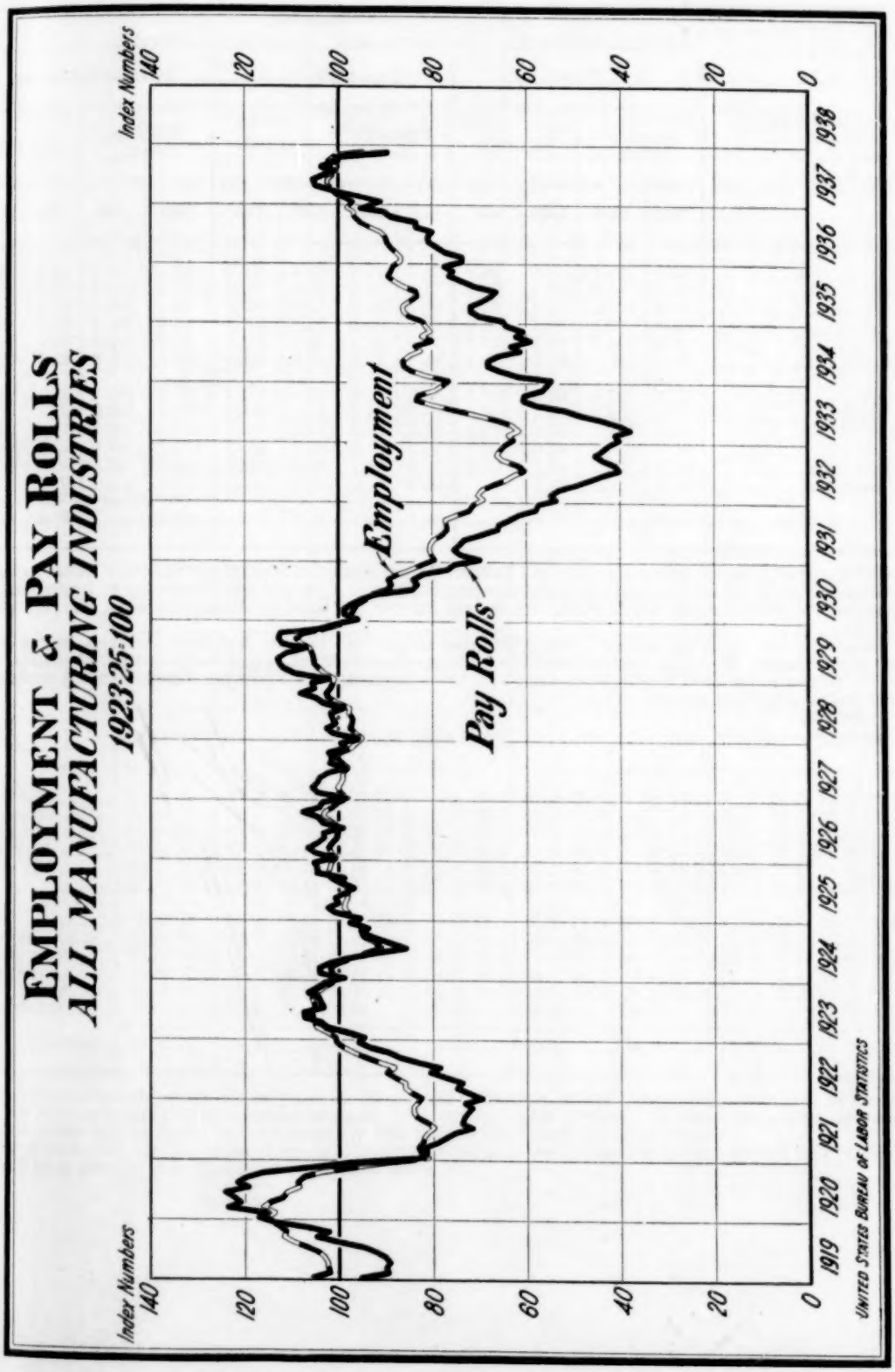
EMPLOYMENT & PAY ROLLS
ALL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES
1923-25=100
Index Numbers
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
Employment
Pay Rolls
1919
1920
1921
1922
1923
1924
1925
1926
1927
1928
1929
1930
1931
1932
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
1938
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in the Durable- and Nondurable-Goods Groups* [1]

[Adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures—3-year average 1923–25=100]

Month	Manufacturing											
	Total				Durable goods [2]				Nondurable goods [3]			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	86.8	96.5	73.8	90.7	78.7	90.4	66.9	86.6	95.4	103.0	82.5	96.0
February	86.9	99.0	73.7	95.8	78.6	93.2	66.6	92.5	95.8	105.2	82.7	99.9
March	87.9	101.1	77.6	101.1	80.2	96.4	71.8	100.0	96.1	106.1	84.9	102.6
April	89.1	102.1	79.3	104.9	82.3	98.6	76.0	106.4	96.3	105.9	83.5	102.9
May	89.8	102.3	80.8	105.2	84.0	99.9	78.5	107.5	96.0	104.8	83.8	102.3
June	90.1	101.1	81.1	102.9	84.7	98.8	79.0	104.6	95.9	103.5	83.9	100.8
July	91.2	101.4	80.2	100.4	84.6	98.9	75.9	100.7	98.2	104.1	85.6	100.0
August	93.5	102.3	83.5	103.8	84.7	98.1	77.0	104.0	102.8	106.9	91.8	103.5
September	95.5	102.1	83.6	100.1	85.7	97.3	77.2	99.4	105.9	107.3	91.6	100.9
October	96.7	[4] 100.5	89.0	[4] 100.1	89.2	[4] 97.6	85.3	101.7	104.7	[4] 103.6	93.7	[4] 98.2
November	96.9	94.7	90.7	89.5	91.0	92.4	88.9	89.9	103.3	97.3	92.9	89.0
December	98.1	-------	95.2	-------	92.7	------	93.4	-------	104.0	-------	97.5	------
Average	91.9	-------	82.4	-------	84.7	------	78.0	-------	99.5	-------	87.9	------

[1] Comparable indexes for earlier years will be found in the April 1937 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.
[2] Includes the following groups of manufacturing industries: Iron and steel; machinery; transportation equipment; railroad repair shops; nonferrous metals; lumber and allied products; and stone, clay, and glass products.
[3] Includes the following groups of manufacturing industries: Textiles and their products, leather and its manufactures, food and kindred products, tobacco manufactures, paper and printing, chemicals and allied products, products of petroleum and coal, rubber products, and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.
[4] Revised.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1936 to November 1937* [1]

[12-month average 1929=100]

Month	Anthracite mining				Bituminous coal				Metalliferous mining				Quarrying and nonmetallic mining			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	59.1	54.1	54.4	42.7	79.8	84.6	70.6	79.9	54.2	66.8	41.7	58.4	39.4	45.7	25.5	34.6
February	61.2	52.7	76.7	41.0	80.2	84.8	78.4	82.4	55.5	69.6	42.8	63.4	36.9	46.7	23.9	37.8
March	52.5	48.9	42.6	37.8	80.4	85.9	70.2	88.4	55.9	73.1	45.1	70.6	42.2	49.1	30.9	41.3
April	49.8	54.0	28.6	63.9	77.5	72.6	62.6	54.4	57.5	76.2	45.5	76.9	48.4	53.1	36.1	48.1
May	54.9	51.0	56.3	44.4	76.2	77.8	62.2	67.8	60.8	78.5	47.7	79.8	52.0	54.9	42.1	51.4
June	51.2	51.1	42.0	50.9	75.7	77.9	61.5	71.2	61.9	79.5	48.2	77.7	53.5	55.4	44.0	52.6
July	48.4	45.0	37.2	35.2	75.5	75.8	62.6	66.4	61.3	82.0	46.1	77.8	54.4	55.5	43.9	50.8
August	41.1	41.2	31.4	27.2	76.9	78.8	65.4	73.8	61.6	83.4	48.2	83.0	55.3	54.9	46.2	53.2
September	47.6	48.2	34.9	31.5	78.2	80.5	71.0	77.7	63.1	84.1	50.0	82.2	54.9	54.7	44.8	50.1
October	49.9	51.0	48.5	51.0	81.1	82.9	79.2	86.0	64.2	82.9	53.7	81.7	54.6	53.3	46.2	49.3
November	51.5	50.5	40.3	45.1	82.3	82.1	80.7	77.8	62.9	75.4	54.6	71.6	52.6	49.9	43.5	41.7
December	54.8	-----	55.4	-----	83.9	-----	85.0	-----	64.4	-----	57.7	-----	49.4	-----	39.4	-----
Average	51.8	-----	45.7	-----	79.0	-----	70.8	-----	60.3	-----	48.4	-----	49.5	-----	38.9	-----

Month	Crude-petroleum producing				Telephone and telegraph				Electric light and power, and manufactured gas				Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance [2]			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	71.1	72.7	55.7	61.2	70.1	74.4	75.0	83.6	86.1	92.1	84.8	92.3	70.7	72.5	65.0	68.0
February	70.8	73.5	55.7	64.1	69.9	74.8	76.2	82.2	86.1	92.2	84.7	93.6	71.7	72.5	68.3	68.7
March	70.9	74.2	56.0	63.9	70.2	75.4	77.2	87.2	86.8	92.4	85.9	94.8	71.2	72.6	67.8	69.2
April	71.3	75.8	57.1	67.7	70.8	76.6	76.0	86.3	88.0	93.1	86.2	95.5	71.3	72.9	65.9	69.4
May	72.7	76.7	58.0	68.2	71.6	77.7	78.5	89.5	89.0	94.6	87.0	97.9	71.5	73.3	66.1	70.1
June	73.7	78.5	58.9	70.4	72.1	78.5	77.4	88.6	90.4	96.3	88.1	100.4	71.7	73.3	66.8	71.1
July	75.4	78.5	60.4	70.5	73.1	79.7	79.9	92.1	91.7	97.5	89.8	102.2	72.4	73.4	66.5	70.8
August	75.0	79.3	59.7	70.8	73.5	79.8	81.2	92.1	93.1	98.3	89.8	102.6	72.4	73.4	66.5	73.1
September	74.5	78.2	60.4	71.2	73.7	80.1	78.8	92.3	93.5	98.6	91.4	104.0	72.8	73.7	66.4	71.6
October	73.6	77.5	59.6	69.9	73.8	79.9	83.1	94.3	94.0	98.5	92.7	105.3	73.1	73.4	67.7	71.4
November	73.2	77.2	60.1	70.2	73.7	79.1	81.6	91.1	93.5	97.3	91.8	103.8	73.0	73.2	69.7	71.9
December	72.4	-----	61.3	-----	73.6	-----	82.4	-----	93.2	-----	93.8	-----	72.5	-----	69.3	-----
Average	72.9	-----	58.6	-----	72.2	-----	78.9	-----	90.5	-----	88.8	-----	72.0	-----	67.2	-----

[1] Comparable indexes for earlier years for all of these industries, except year-round hotels, will be found in the February 1935 and subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Comparable indexes for year-round hotels will be found in the September 1935 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

[2] Not including electric-railroad car building and repairing; see transportation equipment and railroad repair-shop groups, manufacturing industries, table 1.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1936 to November 1937*—Continued

Month	Wholesale trade				Total retail trade				Retail trade—general merchandising				Retail trade—other than general merchandising.			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	85.6	90.7	66.6	72.6	80.4	85.4	62.1	68.0	88.2	95.1	76.4	83.8	78.4	82.9	59.1	64.7
February	85.0	92.0	66.6	74.1	79.7	85.2	61.6	67.9	85.1	93.9	73.9	82.9	78.3	82.9	59.1	64.8
March	85.6	92.1	69.0	75.0	81.9	88.5	63.5	70.5	90.9	100.3	77.3	87.6	79.5	85.4	60.7	67.0
April	85.7	91.9	67.9	75.4	85.2	88.8	65.3	71.9	97.4	99.6	81.0	89.1	82.0	86.0	62.1	68.3
May	84.6	90.8	68.2	76.1	85.0	89.9	65.8	73.5	95.5	102.1	80.8	91.5	82.3	86.7	62.7	69.8
June	84.6	90.3	68.4	76.3	85.5	90.5	66.4	74.4	96.4	102.9	81.3	92.5	82.6	87.2	63.3	70.6
July	85.4	90.6	69.0	76.9	83.2	87.6	65.1	72.8	90.7	95.9	77.3	87.3	81.2	85.4	62.6	69.8
August	86.3	91.8	69.7	79.0	82.4	86.2	64.4	72.3	89.4	93.8	76.4	85.7	80.5	84.2	61.9	69.5
September	88.0	93.0	70.5	78.3	86.6	90.7	66.6	74.4	98.5	103.7	82.8	92.4	83.5	87.3	63.3	70.7
October	89.0	94.0	71.5	79.3	88.7	92.1	68.3	75.9	103.9	108.1	87.2	96.2	84.7	87.9	64.4	71.7
November	89.7	93.5	73.1	78.3	90.1	91.7	70.1	75.3	109.3	109.8	91.4	97.1	85.1	86.9	65.7	70.8
December	91.0	-----	72.8	-----	99.6	-----	75.9	-----	143.4	-----	116.2	-----	88.1	-----	67.6	-----
Average	86.7	-----	69.4	-----	85.7	-----	66.3	-----	99.1	-----	83.5	-----	82.2	-----	62.7	-----

Month	Year-round hotels				Laundries				Dyeing and cleaning			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	81.9	85.5	64.9	70.4	81.5	88.5	68.3	76.4	71.5	76.8	51.6	55.6
February	82.8	86.4	66.5	72.5	81.2	88.6	67.8	76.3	70.3	76.2	49.0	54.6
March	82.8	86.9	66.0	72.7	82.1	88.7	69.9	77.5	74.7	81.1	56.4	61.7
April	83.2	88.4	66.3	74.5	83.2	88.5	70.9	78.5	81.8	84.9	64.1	68.8
May	84.1	87.7	67.0	73.6	85.5	90.3	75.6	81.4	87.3	88.6	72.2	73.9
June	83.9	86.9	66.6	74.0	87.2	93.5	75.8	85.5	87.5	92.1	69.2	79.2
July	83.3	86.1	66.0	73.3	90.5	95.2	79.0	86.9	85.5	86.0	64.8	68.0
August	83.2	86.8	66.1	74.4	89.6	94.2	76.7	86.0	83.5	84.9	63.2	69.0
September	84.2	88.1	67.5	76.1	89.6	93.7	76.6	84.4	86.7	86.7	66.1	72.8
October	85.4	89.2	69.6	77.7	87.6	89.9	75.3	81.5	86.5	85.3	66.7	71.4
November	84.6	88.9	69.6	77.9	87.0	88.0	74.5	79.2	81.3	80.0	60.2	62.9
December	84.0	-----	69.8	-----	87.6	-----	76.1	-----	77.7	-----	57.3	-----
Average	83.6	-----	67.2	-----	86.1	-----	73.9	-----	81.2	-----	61.7	-----

TREND OF INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT, BY STATES

A comparison of employment and pay rolls, by States and geographic divisions, in October and November 1937, is shown in table 4 for all groups combined, and for all manufacturing industries combined, based on data supplied by reporting establishments. The percentage changes shown, unless otherwise noted, are unweighted—that is, the industries included in the manufacturing group and in the grand total have not been weighted according to their relative importance.

The totals for all manufacturing industries combined include figures for miscellaneous manufacturing industries in addition to the 89 manufacturing industries presented in table 1. The totals for all groups combined include all manufacturing industries, each of the nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 1 except building construction, and seasonal hotels.

TABLE 4.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in October and November 1937, by Geographic Divisions and by States*

[Figures in italics are not compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but are taken from reports issued by cooperating State organizations]

Geographic division and State	Total—all groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll November 1937	Percentage change from October 1937	Amount of pay roll (1 week) November 1937	Percentage change from October 1937	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll November 1937	Percentage change from October 1937	Amount of pay roll (1 week) November 1937	Percentage change from October 1937
				Dollars					*Dollars*	
New England	13,982	868,906	−5.4	19,350,140	−8.5	3,578	587,633	−7.2	12,283,884	−12.0
Maine	797	50,184	−7.5	966,099	−14.7	292	39,130	−8.9	699,562	−18.2
New Hampshire	615	36,015	−5.3	669,543	−9.8	207	28,268	−6.6	486,891	−12.8
Vermont	476	16,693	−8.7	342,829	−17.6	148	9,823	−10.8	193,463	−21.8
Massachusetts	[1] *8,318*	*470,998*	*−5.5*	*10,842,080*	*−5.6*	*1,758*	*271,157*	*−8.6*	*5,822,067*	*−9.0*
Rhode Island	1,270	86,609	−5.8	1,702,711	−16.6	427	67,088	−6.9	1,195,150	−21.1
Connecticut	2,506	208,407	−3.9	4,826,878	−9.5	746	172,167	−4.7	3,886,751	−11.2
Middle Atlantic	32,649	2,229,394	−3.4	57,938,056	−7.4	5,440	1,261,331	−4.8	31,135,736	−10.2
New York	20,571	978,083	−3.2	26,918,278	−5.5	[2] *2,256*	*447,532*	*−5.3*	*11,688,612*	*−9.2*
New Jersey	4,292	355,193	−2.5	9,121,229	−4.8	[3] *848*	*260,617*	*−2.4*	*6,509,470*	*−5.5*
Pennsylvania	7,786	896,118	−3.9	21,898,549	−10.6	*2,336*	*553,182*	[4] *−5.2*	*12,937,654*	[4] *−12.7*
East North Central	24,706	2,416,811	−3.8	64,856,575	−8.9	83,48	1,839,512	−4.6	50,262,234	−10.4
Ohio	8,111	636,124	−5.5	16,527,288	−10.3	2,551	469,217	−7.1	12,337,080	−12.8
Indiana	*2,631*	*286,794*	*−5.8*	*7,067,199*	*−13.4*	*947*	*231,082*	*−6.8*	*5,746,174*	*−15.8*
Illinois	[5] *6,326*	*644,551*	*−3.4*	*16,882,205*	*−7.0*	*2,447*	*444,107*	*−4.7*	*11,500,123*	*−9.5*
Michigan	3,859	591,876	−1.3	17,873,795	−8.5	*945*	*517,194*	*−1.2*	*16,123,536*	*−8.0*
Wisconsin	[6] *3,779*	*257,486*	*−3.6*	*6,506,088*	*−6.2*	[7] *1,458*	*177,912*	[4] *−2.1*	*4,555,321*	[4] *−5.7*
West North Central	12,127	447,670	−2.9	10,817,173	−4.0	2,424	215,708	−5.6	5,212,311	−6.3
Minnesota	2,303	93,737	−2.3	2,447,830	−3.9	421	43,490	−3.9	1,145,587	−4.3
Iowa	1,933	68,641	−3.7	1,609,478	−4.8	412	37,577	−6.4	927,908	−6.4
Missouri	3,123	174,828	−4.1	4,130,538	−5.6	876	92,619	−7.2	2,054,784	−9.3
North Dakota	597	5,892	−1.3	142,836	−2.4	56	663	−3.9	19,781	−4.3
South Dakota	570	8,525	−.3	215,862	−1.0	38	2,183	−.5	57,618	+3.0
Nebraska	1,588	36,428	−.9	857,154	+(8)	162	12,838	−3.5	330,111	+1.9
Kansas	[9] *2,013*	*59,619*	[10] *−5.1*	*1,415,475*	[4] *−3.5*	*459*	*26,338*	*−2.3*	*676,522*	*−4.2*

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 4.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in October and November 1937, by Geographic Divisions and by States*—Continued

[Figures in italics are not compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but are taken from reports issued by cooperating State organizations]

Geographic division and State	Total—all groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll November 1937	Percentage change from October 1937	Amount of pay roll (1 week) November 1937	Percentage change from October 1937	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll November 1937	Percentage change from October 1937	Amount of pay roll (1 week) November 1937	Percentage change from October 1937
				Dollars					*Dollars*	
South Atlantic	11,252	873,562	−2.0	17,073,905	−5.3	2,818	573,167	−2.7	10,173,426	−6.6
Delaware	221	15,337	−8.4	373,930	−6.9	89	11,138	−10.3	267,209	−8.3
Maryland	*1,641*	*136,090*	*−2.7*	*3,197,013*	*−6.6*	*586*	*92,672*	[4]*−4.0*	*2,125,057*	[4]*−8.6*
District of Columbia	1,111	42,682	+1.1	1,098,490	+.3	34	3,212	+1.9	109,624	+1.2
Virginia	2,161	118,689	−1.8	2,265,005	−4.8	470	80,431	−2.8	1,481,493	−6.1
West Virginia	1,280	157,249	−3.2	3,957,237	−7.4	254	59,919	−2.8	1,513,563	−7.0
North Carolina	1,509	160,534	−2.0	2,341,596	−6.0	581	143,616	−2.0	2,060,982	−6.7
South Carolina	782	80,225	−.3	1,166,386	−2.5	222	71,536	−.4	1,006,972	−2.6
Georgia	1,515	116,439	−3.4	1,841,476	−6.0	384	89,162	−4.3	1,246,738	−7.9
Florida	1,032	46,317	+5.2	832,772	+3.0	198	21,481	+1.4	361,788	+.9
East South Central	4,549	305,485	−3.3	5,580,355	−7.7	1,021	188,122	−4.8	3,166,660	−10.1
Kentucky	1,282	87,501	−2.0	1,849,416	−8.1	294	36,510	−3.5	696,828	−11.8
Tennessee	1,337	105,606	−5.1	1,873,763	−7.3	383	76,945	−6.7	1,310,367	−9.7
Alabama	1,303	91,319	−3.2	1,535,874	−8.1	250	61,856	−4.1	986,488	−9.7
Mississippi	627	21,059	+.8	321,302	−6.0	94	12,811	−.1	172,977	−9.3
West South Central	5,038	215,445	−1.9	4,822,134	−3.7	1,175	105,839	−3.4	2,300,893	−5.8
Arkansas	[11] *704*	*28,641*	*−4.5*	*524,275*	*−7.2*	*246*	*18,268*	*−7.0*	*309,734*	*−10.1*
Louisiana	1,029	50,721	−1.2	986,287	−3.4	232	25,832	−2.2	435,705	−7.5
Oklahoma	1,470	48,030	−2.5	1,168,534	−4.5	143	12,201	−5.2	288,278	−9.2
Texas	[12] *1,835*	*88,053*	*−1.0*	*2,143,038*	*−2.4*	*554*	*49,540*	*−2.1*	*1,267,176*	*−3.1*
Mountain	4,490	154,181	−4.6	4,054,062	−4.9	569	47,344	−7.6	1,208,185	−3.3
Montana	700	22,515	−8.4	660,041	−11.4	81	5,035	−2.8	129,299	−12.4
Idaho	509	14,208	−2.9	360,203	−2.3	56	4,976	−6.0	124,101	−4.6
Wyoming	355	10,949	−.1	316,534	−1.0	39	2,434	−1.1	75,801	+1.0
Colorado	1,252	49,348	−5.9	1,259,881	−3.7	187	19,535	−11.6	495,404	−5.0
New Mexico	322	7,265	−1.4	161,261	−4.2	33	908	−.4	15,492	−5.2
Arizona	498	19,152	−5.0	508,546	−10.8	42	3,557	−3.0	89,042	−7.8
Utah	636	26,939	−2.4	674,831	+.6	107	9,950	−6.6	250,320	+7.4
Nevada	218	3,805	+.2	112,765	−.8	24	949	−2.5	28,726	−1.3
Pacific	10,064	449,201	−7.2	12,300,572	9.9	2,523	243,212	−11.3	6,442,256	−15.1
Washington	3,124	100,151	−9.0	2,573,923	−12.2	569	54,701	−14.3	1,341,505	−18.9
Oregon	1,420	52,866	−11.6	1,303,345	−17.8	306	29,336	−18.2	659,954	−28.6
California	[13] *5,520*	*296,184*	*−5.8*	*8,423,304*	*−7.8*	*1,648*	*159,175*	*−8.8*	*4,440,797*	*−11.3*

[1] Includes banks and trust companies, construction, municipal, agricultural, and office employment, amusement and recreation, professional services, and trucking and handling.
[2] Includes laundering and cleaning, and water, light, and power.
[3] Includes laundries.
[4] Weighted percentage change.
[5] Includes automobile, and miscellaneous services, restaurants, and building and contracting.
[6] Includes construction, but not public works.
[7] Does not include logging.
[8] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[9] Includes financial institutions, miscellaneous services, and restaurants.
[10] Weighted percentage change including hired farm labor.
[11] Includes automobile dealers and garages, and sand, gravel, and building stone.
[12] Includes business and personal service.
[13] Includes banks, insurance, and office employment.

INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT IN PRINCIPAL METROPOLITAN AREAS

A comparison of employment and pay rolls in October and November 1937 is made in table 5 for 13 metropolitan areas which had a population of 500,000 or over in 1930. Cities within these areas, but having a population of 100,000 or over are not included as data concerning them are tabulated separately and are available on request. Footnotes in the table indicate which cities are excluded. The figures represent reports from cooperating establishments and cover both full- and part-time workers in miscellaneous manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries as well as in the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 1 except building construction.

TABLE 5.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in October and November 1937 by Principal Metropolitan Areas*

Metropolitan area	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll November 1937	Percentage change from October 1937	Amount of pay roll (1 week) November 1937	Percentage change from October 1937
New York [1]	15,258	651,289	−2.1	$17,112,560	−4.1
Chicago [2]	4,424	470,235	−3.4	12,789,375	−7.5
Philadelphia [3]	2,410	221,318	−2.8	5,981,897	−4.4
Detroit	1,659	385,235	−.5	12,303,806	−7.8
Los Angeles [4]	2,866	155,909	−2.5	4,376,119	−5.1
Cleveland	1,768	144,892	−4.8	3,839,101	−10.5
St. Louis	1,551	133,848	−4.1	3,255,480	−6.8
Baltimore	1,204	103,221	−1.7	2,460,135	−6.6
Boston [5]	3,712	172,262	−4.7	4,153,203	−3.3
Pittsburgh	1,280	227,297	−5.5	5,746,523	−14.4
San Francisco [6]	1,651	86,407	−3.5	2,568,518	−5.7
Buffalo	863	64,343	−7.8	1,743,553	−14.2
Milwaukee	1,074	105,855	−3.4	2,858,105	−5.6

[1] Does not include Elizabeth, Jersey City, Newark, and Paterson, N. J.; and Yonkers, N. Y.
[2] Does not include Gary, Ind.
[3] Does not include Camden, N. J.
[4] Does not include Long Beach, Calif.
[5] Does not include Cambridge, Lynn, and Somerville, Mass.
[6] Does not include Oakland, Calif.

UNEMPLOYMENT IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES, LAST QUARTER OF 1937

UNEMPLOYMENT totals for foreign countries moved upward in the last quarter of 1937, and according to official announcements these increases were believed to be more than seasonal in certain industrial countries. Statistics covering trade-union members, unemployed registered with public exchanges, and compulsorily insured workers are drawn upon in the accompanying table dealing with the unemployment situation.

Special importance is attached to the increase in the number of registered unemployed in Great Britain, where the total for December 1937 was 1,665,407, as compared with 1,628,719 for the same month of the previous year. While winter weather is stated to have affected outdoor employments adversely and there was also a seasonal decline in other trades, it is believed that the condition of world markets and the uncertainties of price movements contributed to the higher unemployment.

Even though unemployment in Austria, Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, Norway, and Sweden has tended to increase substantially in recent months over the lows established during the summer of 1937, the totals are well below the same months of the previous year. In Denmark the number of trade-unionists unemployed rose sharply in November 1937, a similar movement in 1936 having occurred a month later. Registration in Poland was larger at the end of the year than in December 1936. Registration of the unemployed in Germany increased from 469,053 in September 1937 to 994,590 in December.

The table following gives statistics of unemployment in foreign countries as shown in official reports, by years from 1931 to 1936, and by months beginning with November 1936 and including the latest month for which figures are available.

Beyond comparisons of the figures in a single series for different periods, it is not possible to use the official unemployment statistics to measure volume of unemployment in a single country or to compare conditions in one country with those in another, owing to the fact that the coverage is not always complete. For example, only insured persons may be reported in some instances, or certain classes, such as agricultural labor, may be excluded.

Statement of Unemployment in Foreign Countries

Year and date (end of month)	Australia		Austria	Belgium			
	Trade-unionists unemployed		Compulsory insurance, number of unemployed in receipt of benefit	Unemployment-insurance societies			
				Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed	
	Number	Percent		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1931	117,866	27.4	253,368	79,186	10.9	121,890	16.9
1932	120,454	29.4	309,969	161,468	19.0	175,259	20.7
1933	104,035	25.1	328,844	168,033	17.0	170,023	17.2
1934	86,865	20.5	287,528	182,855	19.0	166,229	17.2
1935	71,823	15.6	261,768	165,469	17.9	118,754	12.8
1936	53,992	12.2	259,185	122,256	13.4	91,451	10.0
1936							
November			257,063	112,881	12.1	94,332	10.1
December	46,863	10.7	290,452	131,565	14.4	92,619	10.2
1937							
January			316,050	131,645	14.5	97,737	10.7
February			309,178	124,669	13.7	82,125	9.0
March	44,004	9.9	277,126	113,296	12.4	79,711	8.7
April			239,280	97,979	10.8	66,163	7.3
May			215,176	95,888	10.6	75,673	8.4
June	43,584	9.7	196,067	86,344	9.5	78,052	8.6
July			187,360	84,348	9.3	78,831	8.7
August			178,081	88,825	9.8	89,606	9.9
September	42,145	9.3	176,308	90,574	9.9	84,282	9.3
October			188,262				
November			224,166				
December			268,784				

Year and date (end of month)	Canada	Czechoslovakia			Danzig, Free City of	Denmark	
	Percent of trade-unionists unemployed	Number of unemployed on live register	Trade-union insurance funds—unemployed in receipt of benefit		Number of unemployed registered	Trade-union unemployment funds—unemployed	
			Number	Percent		Number	Percent
1931	16.8	291,332	102,179	8.3	24,898	53,019	17.9
1932	22.0	554,059	184,555	13.5	33,244	99,508	31.7
1933	22.3	738,267	247,613	16.9	31,408	97,417	28.8
1934	18.2	676,994	245,953	17.4	20,326	81,756	22.2
1935	15.4	686,269	235,623	15.9	17,983	76,195	19.8
1936	13.3	622,687	208,539	13.1	13,553	78,669	19.3
1936							
November	12.7	510,205	176,658	10.8	10,764	83,552	20.0
December	14.3	619,143	198,492	12.1	14,933	127,478	30.3
1937							
January	14.5	667,486	210,894	12.9	16,797	140,262	33.0
February	13.7	677,947	221,464	13.2	16,724	133,795	31.4
March	12.9	627,258	210,244	12.4	14,909	122,687	28.6
April	11.1	503,632	176,348	10.3	8,776	74,793	17.5
May	9.5	385,061	137,677	8.0	6,526	63,310	14.8
June	10.4	303,535	113,838	6.6	4,617	60,199	13.9
July	8.9	248,127	110,861	6.4	3,327	66,006	15.2
August	7.6	233,318	108,063	6.2	2,984	65,853	15.1
September	7.7	230,692	106,496	6.1	2,910	72,387	16.5
October	8.9	237,737	107,782	6.1	3,800	84,684	19.2
November	11.2	333,455			5,028	103,878	24.5
December		451,484			9,714	[a] 152,850	34.5

[a] Provisional figure.

Statement of Unemployment in Foreign Countries—Continued

Year and date (end of month)	Estonia	Finland	France	Germany	Great Britain
	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number of unemployed registered	Number of unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number of unemployed registered	Number of persons registered with employment exchanges
1931	3,632	11,522	56,112	4,573,218	2,668,000
1932	7,121	17,581	273,412	5,579,858	2,757,000
1933	8,210	17,139	276,033	4,733,014	2,520,616
1934	2,970	10,011	345,033	2,718,309	2,159,231
1935	1,779	7,163	426,931	[1] 2,151,039	2,036,422
1936	1,276	4,796	432,120	[1] 1,592,630	1,754,975
1936					
November	2,102	5,348	407,831	1,197,140	1,623,602
December	1,988	4,398	410,785	1,478,862	1,628,719
1937					
January	2,388	6,805	426,072	1,853,460	1,689,223
February	2,064	5,383	410,219	1,610,947	1,627,845
March	1,801	4,482	386,254	1,245,338	1,601,201
April	1,191	3,554	368,381	960,764	1,454,443
May	638	3,126	345,503	776,321	1,451,330
June	486	2,076	321,725	648,421	1,356,598
July	403	2,089	313,553	562,892	1,379,459
August	470	2,794	311,315	509,257	1,358,621
September	473	3,450	305,341	469,053	[2] 1,339,204
October	788	3,705	319,223	501,847	1,390,249
November	1,473	3,924	332,850	572,521	1,499,203
December	1,727	3,770	365,452	994,590	1,665,407

Year and date (end of month)	Great Britain and Northern Ireland				Hungary		
	Compulsory insurance				Employment exchanges, applications for work	Trade-unionist unemployed	
	Wholly unemployed		Temporary stoppages				
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent		Christian (Budapest)	Social Democratic
1931	2,129,359	16.7	587,494	4.6	52,305	977	27,635
1932	2,272,590	17.6	573,805	4.5	66,235	1,026	29,772
1933	2,110,090	16.4	456,678	3.5	60,595	1,085	26,716
1934	1,801,913	13.9	368,906	2.9	52,157	996	22,291
1935	1,714,844	13.2	312,958	2.3	52,048	967	18,315
1936	1,497,587	11.3	251,379	1.9	52,114	800	15,637
1936							
November	1,429,736	10.7	191,585	1.5	50,371	841	13,815
December	1,424,451	10.7	197,722	1.5	50,863	923	15,044
1937							
January	1,489,092	11.2	187,874	1.4	54,407	969	15,640
February	1,460,026	10.9	164,739	1.3	56,192	1,012	16,148
March	1,406,530	10.5	169,740	1.3	56,782	1,011	15,878
April	1,305,280	9.8	130,788	1.0	53,865	943	14,984
May	1,245,589	9.3	210,401	1.6	50,273	936	13,637
June	1,166,881	8.7	203,329	1.6	45,740	729	13,513
July	1,136,287	8.5	249,345	1.9	43,915	815	13,169
August	1,148,487	8.6	208,941	1.6	45,904	843	12,584
September	1,138,731	8.5	194,997	1.5	44,946	864	12,895
October	1,215,000	8.9	179,856	1.3	45,187	896	12,896
November	1,284,386	9.4	222,204	1.6	36,968	1,116	13,840
December	1,338,850	9.8	326,026	2.4			

[1] Includes the Saar.

[2] New series.

***Statement of Unemployment in Foreign Countries*—Continued**

Year and date (end of month)	Irish Free State	Italy	Japan		Latvia	Netherlands	
	Compulsory insurance—number unemployed	Number of unemployed registered wholly unemployed	Official estimates unemployed		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Unemployment insurance societies—unemployed	
			Number	Percent		Number	Percent
1931	25,230	734,454	422,755	6.1	8,709	82,800	18.1
1932	62,817	1,006,442	485,681	6.8	14,587	153,500	29.5
1933	72,255	1,018,955	408,710	5.6	8,156	163,000	31.0
1934	103,671	963,677	372,941	5.0	4,972	160,400	32.1
1935	[3] 119,498	----------	356,103	4.6	4,825	173,673	36.3
1936	99,834	----------	----------	----------	3,851	168,668	36.2
1936							
November	[4] 110,859	----------	322,948	4.1	4,025	156,575	33.7
December	105,078	----------	322,969	4.1	5,613	163,381	35.0
1937							
January	100,177	----------	333,210	4.2	6,358	172,014	36.9
February	91,680	----------	328,528	4.1	6,178	161,107	34.5
March	93,426	----------	315,845	4.0	6,110	149,115	31.9
April	92,363	----------	307,958	3.9	3,290	133,523	28.5
May	88,480	----------	300,343	3.8	2,127	124,711	26.5
June	64,011	----------	299,341	3.7	1,446	119,325	25.3
July	63,288	----------	[5] 292,050	3.6	1,146	122,982	26.0
August	65,670	----------	[5] 283,940	3.5	1,093	124,610	26.3
September	68,928	----------	----------	----------	1,075	124,012	26.1
October	68,809	----------	----------	----------	1,077	126,621	26.6
November	94,414	----------	----------	----------	[5] 2,304	[5] 135,140	28.6
December	97,855	----------	----------	----------	----------	[5] 152,581	32.3

Year and date (end of month)	New Zealand	Norway			Poland	Rumania
	Number unemployed registered by employment exchanges [6]	Trade-unionists (10 unions) unemployed		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number unemployed registered with employment offices	Number unemployed remaining on live register
		Number	Percent			
1931	41,430	----------	22.3	27,479	299,502	35,851
1932	51,549	14,790	30.8	[7] 32,705	255,582	38,899
1933	46,971	16,588	33.4	[7] 35,591	249,660	29,060
1934	39,235	15,963	30.7	35,121	342,166	16,871
1935	38,234	14,783	25.3	36,103	381,935	13,852
1936	36,890	13,267	18.8	32,643	----------	13,549
1936						
November	39,056	14,330	18.8	35,119	----------	11,526
December	35,286	16,632	21.7	36,260	402,814	16,224
1937						
January	31,416	18,045	23.2	35,435	532,662	18,778
February	28,941	18,163	23.1	34,440	545,651	19,653
March	27,907	18,457	23.2	32,951	525,041	17,392
April	27,953	17,561	21.8	31,824	443,140	12,609
May	28,302	14,813	18.1	26,298	334,527	10,784
June	29,326	13,020	15.6	22,028	294,334	6,396
July	30,443	12,772	15.2	18,572	278,361	5,822
August	27,323	13,221	15.6	20,045	261,386	5,878
September	25,053	14,503	17.0	25,431	252,719	6,083
October	----------	16,286	19.1	29,063	263,615	6,343
November	----------	----------	----------	32,239	329,474	----------
December	----------	----------	----------	[5] 33,906	463,175	----------

[3] Incomplete figures.
[4] Special employment period.
[5] Preliminary figure.
[6] New series from 1933 on.
[7] Revised figures.

***Statement of Unemployment in Foreign Countries*—Continued**

Year and date (end of month)	Sweden		Switzerland				Yugoslavia
	Trade-unionists unemployed		Unemployment funds				
			Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed		Number of unemployed registered
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
1931	64,815	17.2	----------	5.9	----------	12.1	10,018
1932	89,922	22.8	----------	9.1	----------	12.2	14,761
1933	97,316	23.7	----------	10.8	----------	8.5	15,997
1934	80,216	18.9	----------	9.8	----------	6.1	15,647
1935	81,385	16.1	----------	11.8	----------	5.9	16,752
1936	71,552	13.6	----------	13.2	----------	5.3	19,436
1936							
November	67,869	12.8	65,900	12.3	20,000	3.6	14,239
December	99,776	18.5	78,864	14.3	18,176	3.3	22,069
1937							
January	85,717	15.8	87,300	16.6	17,500	3.3	35,170
February	80,637	14.5	84,100	16.0	16,000	3.0	39,510
March	83,024	14.9	66,985	12.7	14,488	2.7	35,324
April	68,156	12.1	51,300	9.7	12,100	2.2	24,765
May	51,903	9.2	37,800	7.2	10,200	1.9	16,936
June	49,109	8.6	34,082	6.4	10,217	1.9	11,258
July	42,451	7.4	34,300	6.6	10,300	1.9	11,543
August	40,953	7.1	34,800	6.7	10,900	2.0	10,845
September	43,474	7.5	36,404	6.8	11,194	2.1	12,250
October	52,370	9.0	40,000	7.6	13,000	2.4	13,719
November	69,533	11.7	----------	----------	----------	----------	18,494
December	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	29,988

Building Operations

SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, DECEMBER 1937 [1]

BUILDING activity as measured by the value of permits issued showed a marked increase (52.8 percent) in December over the preceding month. All classes of construction registered gains. The greatest, 81.9 percent, was in new nonresidential construction. New residential construction and additions, alterations, and repairs increased 47.9 and 19.6 percent, respectively. This pick-up in building activity, however, can almost wholly be attributed to the increase in the value of permits issued in New York City, where a new building code goes into effect January 1.

Compared with a year ago permit valuations showed an increase of 25.5 percent. New nonresidential construction in December was 48.6 percent above the corresponding month of 1936, while the value of permits issued for additions, alterations, and repairs increased 32.6 percent and new residential construction rose 7.4 percent.

Comparison of December 1937 with November 1937 and December 1936

A summary of building construction in 1,498 identical cities in December 1937, November 1937, and December 1936 is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction in 1,498 Identical Cities, December 1937*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Estimated cost		
	December 1937	Percentage change from—		December 1937	Percentage change from—	
		November 1937	December 1936		November 1937	December 1936
All construction	33,319	−25.6	−13.0	$150,573,355	+52.8	+25.5
New residential	7,924	+1.7	−12.9	63,692,062	+47.9	+7.4
New nonresidential	5,622	−38.8	−24.7	59,902,207	+81.9	+48.6
Additions, alterations, and repairs	19,773	−28.8	−9.0	26,979,086	+19.6	+32.6

[1] More detailed information by geographic divisions and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, December 1937," copies of which will be furnished upon request.

A summary of the estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings and of the number of families provided for in new dwellings in 1,498 identical cities, having a population of 2,500 and over, is shown in table 2 for the months of December 1937, November 1937, and December 1936.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Cost of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 1,498 Identical Cities, December 1937*

Type of dwelling	Estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	December 1937	Percentage change from—		December 1937	Percentage change from—	
		November 1937	December 1936		November 1937	December 1936
All types	$62,566,515	+47.7	+6.2	15,911	+48.7	+11.3
1-family	26,330,660	−10.9	−31.2	6,950	−3.6	−16.7
2-family [1]	5,126,616	+183.2	+108.7	1,569	+127.7	+86.6
Multifamily [2]	31,109,239	+183.0	+71.0	7,392	+164.2	+44.5

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores. [2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Analysis by Size of City, December 1937

Table 3 shows the estimated cost of building construction for which permits were issued in December 1937 compared with November 1937 and December 1936, by size of city and by class of construction.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated Cost of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued, by Size of City*

Size of city	Number of cities	Total construction			New residential buildings		
		Estimated cost, December 1937	Percentage change from—		Estimated cost, December 1937	Percentage change from—	
			November 1937	December 1936		November 1937	December 1936
Total, all reporting cities	1,498	$150,573,355	+52.8	+25.5	$63,692,062	+47.8	+7.4
500,000 and over	14	92,328,811	+137.3	+104.2	44,872,002	+150.4	+102.1
100,000 and under 500,000	78	19,311,438	+.8	−34.4	5,840,782	−17.7	−57.9
50,000 and under 100,000	95	9,051,952	−27.6	−10.4	2,793,084	−19.1	−42.1
25,000 and under 50,000	155	7,886,962	−6.2	−27.3	2,401,910	−39.3	−43.6
10,000 and under 25,000	429	10,763,223	−7.4	−21.4	4,266,901	−28.8	−45.7
5,000 and under 10,000	337	5,198,705	−.5	−31.2	2,367,133	−16.6	−45.0
2,500 and under 5,000	390	6,032,264	+121.4	+95.8	1,150,250	−36.3	−41.4

Size of city	New nonresidential buildings			Additions, alterations, and repairs			Population (census of 1930)
	Estimated cost, December 1937	Percentage change from—		Estimated cost, December 1937	Percentage change from—		
		November 1937	December 1936		November 1937	December 1936	
Total, all reporting cities	$59,902,207	+81.9	+48.6	$26,979,086	+19.6	+32.6	58,511,755
500,000 and over	36,784,552	+219.1	+140.1	10,672,257	+12.7	+38.8	21,449,853
100,000 and under 500,000	7,696,544	+14.7	−23.8	5,774,112	+7.9	+5.7	14,853,267
50,000 and under 100,000	3,770,971	−48.5	+18.4	2,487,897	+44.7	+18.9	6,333,524
25,000 and under 50,000	3,311,368	+51.3	−25.4	2,173,684	−3.9	+.9	5,511,096
10,000 and under 25,000	4,651,845	+47.8	+17.3	1,844,477	−25.6	−1.3	6,569,618
5,000 and under 10,000	1,666,411	+11.0	−32.6	1,165,161	+31.7	+49.6	2,381,711
2,500 and under 5,000	2,020,516	+280.7	+145.5	2,861,498	+639.6	+864.0	1,412,686

The estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings for which permits were issued in the 1,498 identical cities reporting for November and December 1937, together with the number of family dwelling units provided in new dwellings, by size of city, is given in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Cost of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 1,498 Identical Cities, by Size of City, December 1937*

Size of city	Estimated cost of house keeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in—							
				All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings [1]		Multi-family dwellings [2]	
	December 1937	November 1937	Percentage change	December 1937	November 1937	December 1937	November 1937	December 1937	November 1937	December 1937	November 1937
Total, all reporting cities	$62, 566, 515	$42, 361, 302	+47.7	15, 911	10, 699	6, 950	7, 212	1, 569	689	7, 392	2, 798
500,000 and over	44, 615, 002	17, 896, 566	+149.3	11, 050	4, 058	2, 916	1, 560	1, 245	149	6, 889	2, 349
100,000 and under 500,000	5, 432, 073	6, 953, 904	−21.9	1, 529	1, 966	1, 172	1, 597	142	195	215	174
50,000 and under 100,000	2, 718, 532	3, 439, 049	−21.0	750	903	517	736	66	102	167	65
25,000 and under 50,000	2, 369, 910	3, 538, 726	−33.0	608	914	543	777	31	57	34	80
10,000 and under 25,000	4, 036, 901	5, 992, 184	−32.6	995	1, 531	915	1, 373	41	102	39	56
5,000 and under 10,000	2, 243, 847	2, 759, 499	−18.7	648	791	576	704	27	41	45	46
2,500 and under 5,000	1, 150, 250	1, 781, 374	−35.4	331	536	311	465	17	43	3	28

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction During Calendar Years, 1936 and 1937

Cumulative totals for the 12 months of 1937 compared with the calendar year 1936 are shown in table 5. The data are based on reports received from cities having a population of 2,500 and over.

TABLE 5.—*Estimated Cost of Building Construction in Reporting Cities of 2,500 Population and Over, 1936 and 1937, by Class of Construction*

Class of construction	Estimated cost of building construction		Percentage change
	1937	1936	
All construction	$1, 650, 901, 097	$1, 482, 761, 951	+11.3
New residential	729, 913, 571	695, 216, 807	+5.0
New nonresidential	556, 687, 404	475, 417, 075	+17.1
Additions, alterations, and repairs	364, 300, 122	312, 128, 069	+16.7

Table 6 presents the estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings and number of family dwelling units provided in cities with a population of 2,500 and over, for the calendar years 1936 and 1937.

TABLE 6.—*Estimated Cost of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in Reporting Cities of 2,500 Population and Over, 1936 and 1937, by Type of Dwelling*

Type of dwelling	Estimated cost		Percentage change	Number of families provided for		Percentage change
	1937	1936		1937	1936	
All types	$718,182,439	$686,281,530	+4.6	178,679	169,714	+5.3
1-family	509,479,894	462,205,927	+10.2	117,296	105,949	+10.7
2-family [1]	33,817,188	25,134,613	+34.5	11,893	9,096	+30.7
Multifamily [2]	174,885,357	198,940,990	−12.1	49,490	54,669	−9.5

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The information on building permits issued December 1937, November 1937, and December 1936 is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 1,498 identical cities having a population of 2,500 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics direct from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of labor collect and forward the information to the Bureau. The cost figures shown in this report are estimates made by prospective builders on applying for permits to build. No land costs are included. Only building projects within the corporate limits of the cities enumerated are included in the Bureau's tabulation. In addition to permits issued for private building construction, the statistics include the value of contracts for Federal and State buildings in the cities covered. Information concerning public building is collected by the Bureau from various Federal and State agencies having the power to award contracts for building construction. These data are then added to the data concerning private construction received from local building officials. In December 1937 the value of Federal and State buildings for which contracts were awarded in these 1,498 cities amounted to $5,704,000; in November 1937, to $1,835,000; and in December 1936, to $11,006,000.

Construction from Public Funds

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during December 1937, November 1937, and December 1936 on construction projects financed from various Federal funds is shown in table 7.

TABLE 7.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Projects Financed From Federal Funds, December 1937, November 1937, and December 1936* [1]

Federal agency	Value of contracts awarded and force-account work started—		
	December 1937	November 1937 [2]	December 1936 [2]
Total	$110,860,323	$88,767,808	[3] $100,474,254
Public Works Administration:			
Federal	419,974	476,373	6,762,468
Non-Federal:			
N. I. R. A.	1,383,466	4,136,314	10,771,709
E. R. A. A.	47,971,377	33,569,177	[3] 39,059,108
Federal projects under The Works Program	4,004,945	11,450,901	14,984,802
Regular Federal appropriations	57,080,561	39,135,043	28,896,167

[1] Preliminary, subject to revision.
[2] Revised.
[3] Revised; includes $3,754,281 low-cost housing projects (Housing Division, P. W. A).

The value of public-building and highway-construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for December 1937, November 1937, and December 1936, is shown in table 8.

TABLE 8.—*Value of Public-Building and Highway-Construction Awards Financed Wholly From State Funds*

Type of project	Value of contracts		
	December 1937	November 1937	December 1936
Public buildings	$4,335,282	$1,305,240	$869,921
Highway construction	2,572,449	6,629,309	6,717,757

Retail Prices

SUMMARY

Food, Electricity, and Gas

THE continued decline of meat prices, combined with a sharp drop in the price of eggs, lowered the food cost index 1.2 percent between November and December. The comparatively sharp decline during the last 4 months of the year, however, carried the December index 0.4 percent below the level of December 1936.

A downward trend in prices of electricity was shown during the year with rate reductions occurring in 22 of the 51 cities. Fourteen cities reported changes in prices of gas. Lower prices of manufactured gas in some localities are reflected in the all-gas index.

FOOD

Prices in December 1937

RETAIL food costs declined 1.2 percent between November and December largely as a result of the continued decline in meat prices and a sharp break in the price of eggs. Lower costs were reported for 43 of the 51 cities included in the index, with higher costs in the other 8 cities.

The food cost index for December 14 was 82.6 percent of the 1923–25 average. This is 0.4 percent below the level of a year ago. Food costs are 27.6 percent higher than in December 1932, when the index was 64.7. They are 21.9 percent below the level of December 1929, when indexes for all commodity groups were well above their present level.

DETAILS BY COMMODITY GROUPS

The cost of cereals and bakery products declined 0.3 percent between November 16 and December 14. Prices were lower for 8 of the 13 items in the group. Flour decreased 1.7 percent, continuing the decline which began in July. There was no change in the average

price of white bread. Corn meal and hominy grits showed decreases of 2.5 and 2.7 percent respectively.

Meat costs continued to decline in all reporting cities and were 4.7 percent below the November level. Price decreases were reported for 18 of the 21 items in the group. Beef and veal costs combined declined 4.9 percent, and pork costs dropped 7.7 percent. Reductions of more than 5 percent were reported for five of the six beef items and for all seven pork items. Lamb and poultry costs declined 1.8 percent and 1.0 percent respectively. Prices rose slightly for both pink and red salmon, continuing the upward trend of the past 10 months.

The cost of dairy products made a seasonal advance of 1.9 percent and reached the highest level for the year. The price of butter, which rose 5.3 percent, was higher than for any December since 1929. The average price of milk increased 0.1 percent; an increase of 1.0 cent a quart in Buffalo and Peoria, and a decrease of 0.5 of a cent in Seattle, were the only important changes.

Egg prices, which are usually near their peak at this season of the year, broke sharply, with a decrease of 9.7 percent. Seven of the ten cities that reported increases for eggs were in the West Central States.

The fruit and vegetable index rose 3.9 percent as a result of a 5.0 percent increase in the cost of the fresh items of the group. The more important increases for staple products were cabbage, 24.4 percent; sweetpotatoes, 11.4 percent; onions, 7.1 percent; potatoes, 3.8 percent; and apples, 2.8 percent. Oranges, with a drop of 16.4 percent, was the only fresh item which showed a decrease. The cost of the canned items decreased 0.7 percent, while the dried products declined 2.6 percent. Prices of items in these subgroups were generally lower, with the largest decreases for canned and dried beans.

Beverage and chocolate costs declined 1.0 percent, due to a decrease of 1.5 percent in coffee prices and a 2.6 percent decline for cocoa. A price increase of 0.2 percent was reported for both tea and chocolate prices.

The cost of fats and oils declined 3.6 percent. The price of lard dropped 8.4 percent, following the trend of pork prices. Lard compound and vegetable shortening decreased 2.1 percent and 1.6 percent respectively.

The cost index for the sugar and sweets group moved down 0.5 percent. Prices were lower for all items in the group. Sugar, the most important item, declined 0.5 percent.

Indexes of retail food costs for December and November 1937, together with indexes for December 1936, 1932, and 1929 are shown in table 1. The chart shows trends in the cost of all foods and of each major commodity group for the period January 1929 to December 1937, inclusive.

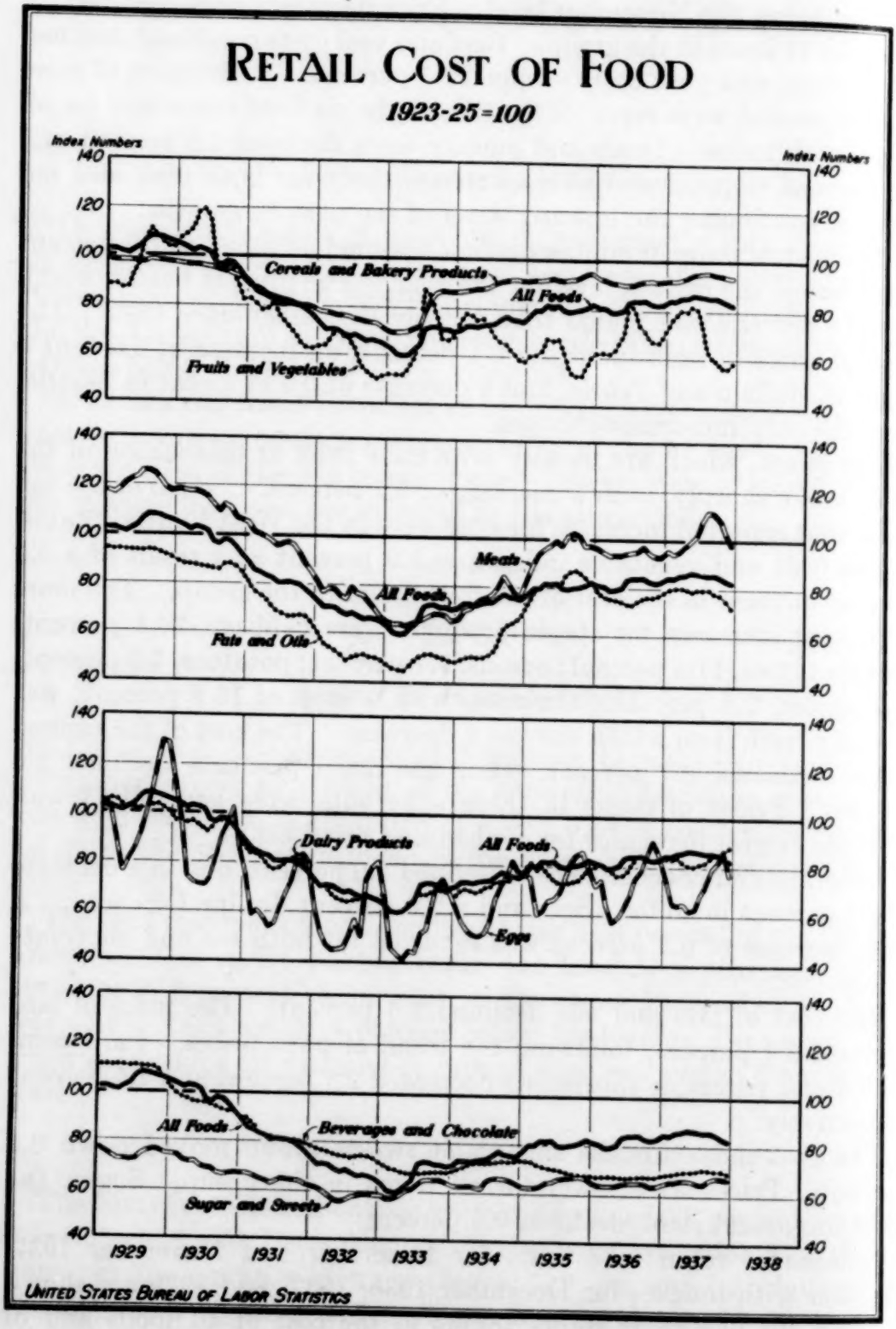
RETAIL COST OF FOOD
1923-25=100
Index Numbers
Index Numbers
140
120
100
80
60
40
Cereals and Bakery Products
All Foods
Fruits and Vegetables
Meats
All Foods
Fats and Oils
Dairy Products
All Foods
Eggs
All Foods
Beverages and Chocolate
Sugar and Sweets
1929
1930
1931
1932
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
1938
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *by Commodity Groups*

December and November 1937 and December 1936, 1932, and 1929

Commodity group	1937		1936	1932	1929
	Dec. 14	Nov. 16	Dec. 15	Dec. 15	Dec. 15
All foods	82.6	83.6	82.9	64.7	105.7
Cereals and bakery products	93.7	94.0	91.9	71.1	97.8
Meats	98.0	102.8	93.0	66.8	117.6
Dairy products	88.2	86.6	82.5	65.7	100.5
Eggs	76.7	84.9	85.9	80.6	128.7
Fruits and vegetables	58.4	56.2	69.1	51.8	103.7
Fresh	56.2	53.5	67.6	50.7	104.1
Canned	79.9	80.5	81.6	66.8	94.6
Dried	62.4	64.1	70.6	49.5	106.9
Beverages and chocolate	69.4	70.1	67.8	72.8	105.3
Fats and oils	72.0	74.8	77.2	49.0	90.7
Sugar and sweets	66.8	67.1	63.9	58.5	75.1

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined with the use of population weights.

The prices of 55 of the 84 items included in the index declined between November and December, 25 increased, and 4 showed no change. Compared with a year ago, the December prices were higher for 47 items and lower for 36 items.

The brands and grades used for reporting retail food prices to the Bureau of Labor Statistics were recently reviewed by several large distributing companies. Since the Bureau requests that prices be furnished in each city on the brands or grades of the various items that are sold in largest volume, a number of changes were necessary. These changes have been incorporated in the retail food price report for December. Prices for November have been recomputed on a comparable basis. All commodities affected by the changes are indicated in table 2 as revised.

Average prices of each of the 84 foods for 51 cities combined are shown in table 2 for December and November 1937 and for December 1936.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined* [1]

December and November 1937 and December 1936

[*Indicates the 42 foods included in indexes prior to Jan. 1, 1935]

Article		1937		1936
		Dec. 14	Nov. 16	Dec. 15
Cereals and bakery products:				
Cereals:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
*Flour, wheat	pound	4.3	[2] 4.4	4.9
*Macaroni	do	15.2	15.1	15.2
*Wheat cereal	28-oz. package	24.5	24.5	24.2
*Corn flakes	8-oz. package	7.7	[2] 7.6	8.0
*Corn meal	pound	5.0	5.1	5.4
Hominy grits	24-oz. package	9.1	9.4	9.8
*Rice	pound	8.1	8.1	8.6
*Rolled oats	do	7.4	[2] 7.3	7.4
Bakery products:				
*Bread, white	do	8.9	8.9	8.2
Bread, whole-wheat	do	9.8	9.8	9.3
Bread, rye	do	10.0	10.1	9.0
Cake	do	25.4	25.4	25.4
Soda crackers	do	16.6	[2] 16.7	18.2

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined*—Continued

December and November 1937 and December 1936

[*Indicates the 42 foods included in indexes prior to Jan. 1, 1935]

Article		1937		1936
		Dec. 14	Nov. 16	Dec. 15
Meats:				
Beef:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
*Sirloin steak	pound	39.4	41.5	39.2
*Round steak	do	36.1	38.4	35.1
*Rib roast	do	31.6	33.7	29.7
*Chuck roast	do	24.8	26.1	23.2
*Plate	do	16.9	17.9	15.5
Liver	do	24.8	25.1	25.3
Veal:				
Cutlets	do	43.6	44.7	40.5
Pork:				
*Chops	do	31.1	34.1	31.4
Loin roast	do	25.3	28.6	25.9
*Bacon, sliced	do	40.0	43.1	39.7
Bacon, strip	do	33.8	36.2	34.3
*Ham, sliced	do	47.1	49.7	48.4
Ham, whole	do	28.4	29.9	30.7
Salt pork	do	23.7	25.2	24.9
Lamb:				
Breast	do	14.7	14.6	11.9
Chuck	do	24.4	24.7	20.4
*Leg	do	29.9	31.0	26.1
Rib chops	do	38.0	38.3	32.7
Poultry:				
*Roasting Chickens	do	35.4	35.8	29.1
Fish:				
Salmon, pink	16 oz. can	14.0	14.0	12.9
*Salmon, red	do	27.0	26.7	24.8
Dairy products:				
*Butter	pound	45.5	43.2	40.0
*Cheese	do	29.4	29.6	29.3
Cream	½ pint	15.0	14.9	15.4
Milk, fresh (delivered and store)[3]	quart	12.7	12.7	12.2
*Milk, fresh (delivered)	do	13.0	13.0	12.4
*Milk, evaporated	14½-oz. can	7.5	[2] 7.5	7.9
*Eggs	dozen	39.0	[3] 43.2	44.7
Fruits and vegetables:				
Fresh:				
Apples	pound	4.4	[2] 4.3	6.0
*Bananas	do	6.2	6.2	6.6
Lemons	dozen	36.8	36.6	27.3
*Oranges	do	28.6	34.2	28.9
Beans, green	pound	13.9	12.4	11.2
*Cabbage	do	3.7	3.0	3.7
Carrots	bunch	5.8	5.1	5.3
Celery	stalk	8.8	8.6	9.0
Lettuce	head	8.1	7.3	7.5
*Onions	pound	4.3	4.0	3.2
*Potatoes	do	2.0	1.9	3.2
Spinach	do	8.1	6.2	7.1
Sweetpotatoes	do	3.7	3.3	4.1
Canned:				
Peaches	no. 2½ can	19.5	19.6	18.5
Pears	do	21.7	21.8	22.1
Pineapple	do	23.1	23.1	22.5
Asparagus	no. 2 can	30.1	30.0	27.1
Beans, green	do	11.5	11.6	12.2
*Beans with pork	16-oz. can	7.6	8.0	7.4
*Corn	no. 2 can	12.1	12.2	13.0
*Peas	do	16.0	16.0	16.2
*Tomatoes	do	9.0	9.1	9.5
Tomato soup	10½-oz. can	7.4	7.5	8.1
Dried:				
Peaches	pound	16.2	16.5	17.4
*Prunes	do	9.8	[2] 10.0	10.4
*Raisins	15-oz. package	10.2	10.3	9.8
Black-eyed peas	pound	8.3	8.5	9.6
Lima beans	do	9.7	10.1	11.7
*Navy beans	do	6.9	7.2	9.2
Beverages and chocolate:				
*Coffee	do	25.0	[2] 25.3	24.5
*Tea	do	[4] 17.7	[2 4] 17.7	71.0
Cocoa	8-oz. can	9.8	10.1	10.1
Chocolate	8-oz. package	16.5	16.5	16.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined*—Continued

December and November 1937 and December 1936

[* Indicates the 42 foods included in indexes prior to Jan. 1, 1935]

Article		1937		1936
		Dec. 14	Nov. 16	Dec. 15
Fats and oils:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
*Lard	pound	14.7	16.1	16.8
Lard compound	do	13.5	13.8	15.3
*Vegetable shortening	do	20.1	20.4	21.4
Salad oil	pint	25.2	25.1	25.1
Mayonnaise	½ pint	17.5	17.6	16.9
*Oleomargarine	pound	17.6	17.7	18.8
Peanut butter	do	19.0	19.1	18.8
Sugar and sweets:				
*Sugar	do	5.6	5.6	5.5
Corn sirup	24-oz. can	14.4	14.4	14.2
Molasses	18-oz. can	14.4	14.5	14.4
Strawberry preserves	pound	22.4	22.4	20.9

[1] Prices for individual cities are combined with the use of population and consumption weights.
[2] November prices for revised brands and/or grades for comparison with December. See p. 531. For prices comparable with October and preceding months, see Retail Prices, November 1937, table 2.
[3] Average prices of milk delivered by dairies and sold in grocery stores, weighted according to the relative proportion distributed by each method.
[4] Quarter pound.

DETAILS BY REGIONS AND CITIES

The average decrease of 1.2 percent in the composite food index resulted from lower costs in 43 cities and increases in 8. The decreases were largest in Boston and Providence, where the cost of meats and eggs dropped considerably more than the average for all cities combined. In addition, there was a decline of 5.1 percent in fruit and vegetable costs in Providence. The largest increase occurred in Peoria, where egg prices rose and advances in the costs of dairy products and fruits and vegetables were greater than the average for other cities.

Indexes of retail costs of food by cities and regions are given in table 3 for December and November 1937 and for December of earlier years.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Regions and Cities* [1]

December and November 1937 and November 1936, 1935, 1933, 1932, and 1929

[1923-25=100]

Region and city	1937		1936	1935	1933	1932	1929
	Dec. 14	Nov. 16	Dec. 15	Dec. 17	Dec. 19	Dec. 15	Dec. 15
Average: 51 cities combined	82.6	83.6	82.9	82.0	69.3	64.7	105.7
New England	81.0	83.8	80.9	80.5	69.1	66.0	105.8
Boston	78.7	81.9	78.4	78.3	67.3	65.3	105.4
Bridgeport	86.6	88.9	86.0	86.7	72.7	68.6	106.3
Fall River	84.7	86.4	82.6	81.2	69.3	63.9	105.1
Manchester	82.1	83.5	82.7	82.9	70.6	65.0	103.0
New Haven	86.1	87.9	86.3	85.6	73.2	69.0	107.8
Portland, Maine	81.4	82.8	81.7	81.0	70.1	65.0	104.1
Providence	80.6	83.7	81.3	79.9	68.8	64.0	104.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Regions and Cities*—Continued

December and November 1937 and November 1936, 1935, 1933, 1932, and 1929

[1923–25=100]

Region and city	1937		1936	1935	1933	1932	1929
	Dec. 14	Nov. 16	Dec. 15	Dec. 17	Dec. 19	Dec. 15	Dec. 15
Middle Atlantic	84.0	84.9	83.4	83.1	70.7	66.6	106.0
Buffalo	81.8	81.1	81.6	82.0	68.8	65.0	106.4
Newark	85.6	88.5	84.6	84.5	72.0	69.8	105.7
New York	86.0	87.3	83.3	84.1	72.2	69.5	105.5
Philadelphia	83.9	83.3	85.9	84.2	71.3	65.4	107.2
Pittsburgh	81.1	83.5	81.1	80.1	67.3	62.3	105.8
Rochester	82.8	83.1	83.4	81.7	67.9	61.6	104.5
Scranton	77.0	77.3	81.1	78.9	69.1	63.5	107.7
East North Central	82.9	83.6	83.4	81.8	68.1	62.2	107.0
Chicago	84.2	85.0	84.6	82.6	68.6	64.5	110.1
Cincinnati	83.3	83.5	85.1	84.9	68.3	63.4	111.2
Cleveland	81.9	83.7	81.8	79.6	67.7	60.7	101.8
Columbus, Ohio	81.0	80.9	83.9	83.2	69.4	61.2	106.2
Detroit	82.5	82.4	81.8	80.9	66.9	58.0	104.7
Indianapolis	81.6	81.8	84.0	81.3	67.5	62.7	108.3
Milwaukee	85.7	86.9	85.9	83.9	69.4	66.1	106.3
Peoria	82.5	81.5	85.1	82.9	69.7	63.2	106.9
Springfield, Ill	80.9	80.5	83.6	80.9	65.9	61.3	105.4
West North Central	84.3	85.2	87.1	84.8	69.2	64.0	107.1
Kansas City	82.0	83.4	85.4	83.2	68.8	66.3	107.1
Minneapolis	87.1	87.5	91.2	86.6	72.1	65.7	108.9
Omaha	80.9	80.2	84.7	81.8	66.3	61.2	103.9
St. Louis	86.3	88.0	87.7	86.6	68.9	63.5	108.1
St. Paul	83.9	84.1	86.5	84.4	71.1	63.2	106.1
South Atlantic	81.0	81.8	83.4	82.7	69.1	63.1	104.2
Atlanta	76.6	77.5	80.0	80.8	65.5	59.2	103.2
Baltimore	86.1	86.6	86.7	86.1	72.0	66.2	104.7
Charleston, S. C	82.2	83.3	84.1	82.3	70.3	63.5	104.6
Jacksonville	79.4	79.7	80.6	79.8	64.9	60.3	100.0
Norfolk	79.8	80.0	83.6	83.2	69.1	63.7	110.9
Richmond	76.0	76.4	82.0	78.5	67.0	60.8	100.9
Savannah	80.8	82.3	82.9	82.9	68.2	63.7	105.9
Washington, D. C	83.6	85.6	85.3	85.7	72.0	65.2	104.7
East South Central	77.2	77.4	79.5	77.7	65.4	60.4	103.9
Birmingham	72.8	72.8	75.3	72.6	62.0	58.3	101.3
Louisville	86.9	87.1	88.5	88.4	70.9	63.9	108.6
Memphis	78.6	79.3	81.6	79.6	68.7	62.0	105.7
Mobile	76.6	78.0	77.7	76.8	65.2	60.9	103.1
West South Central	80.7	81.2	81.6	80.8	68.6	62.5	104.9
Dallas	78.7	78.8	79.4	80.5	68.2	63.3	105.7
Houston	80.4	81.2	81.9	80.3	66.9	58.8	103.5
Little Rock	78.5	79.2	80.8	78.5	66.3	59.3	107.8
New Orleans	84.2	84.8	84.4	83.4	72.0	66.8	105.0
Mountain	84.9	85.6	86.6	84.8	[2] 67.7	64.8	102.5
Butte	80.6	80.1	82.0	78.7	62.1	62.2	104.9
Denver	87.8	88.0	89.5	86.6	70.0	66.7	103.0
Salt Lake City	80.9	82.8	82.8	83.1	[2] 65.4	62.4	101.1
Pacific	80.0	80.9	80.1	78.6	[2] 69.3	66.4	102.4
Los Angeles	74.9	75.3	76.3	74.0	[2] 66.5	62.4	99.2
Portland, Oreg	82.3	83.4	82.0	80.1	65.3	65.7	104.3
San Francisco	85.1	86.2	83.2	82.4	[2] 73.8	72.2	105.8
Seattle	81.5	83.2	82.6	81.6	68.3	65.4	103.7

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined for the regions and for the United States, with the use of population and consumption weights.

[2] Revised.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics collects prices in nine cities that cannot be included in the food cost indexes, since no prices are available for the 1923–25 base period. These cities were selected from areas

which were not adequately represented by the 51 cities in the current food cost indexes.

Average prices for each of these cities for which data were available have been released since June 1935. Consumption weights have been provided for these cities, making it possible to measure changes in food costs from one period to another. Percentage changes in food costs between November and December 1937 are shown in table 4 for these nine cities.

TABLE 4.—*Percentage Changes in Retail Food Costs for Specified Cities December 1937 Compared With November 1937*

Region and city	Percentage change Dec. 14, 1937, compared with Nov. 16, 1937								
	All foods	Cereals and bakery products	Meats	Dairy products	Eggs	Fruits and vegetables	Beverages and chocolate	Fats and oils	Sugar and sweets
West North Central:									
Cedar Rapids	−0.4	−0.2	−4.3	+7.5	−2.1	−0.6	−0.4	−2.0	−2.1
Sioux Falls	−.4	−.4	−4.3	+1.5	−7.9	+5.7	−1.1	−4.9	−.7
Wichita	−.1	−1.3	−2.0	+1.3	+7.7	+.4	+.6	−3.6	−1.4
South Atlantic:									
Columbia, S. C	+.3	−7.3	−2.4	+2.2	+4.5	+6.2	−3.1	−3.4	−1.1
Winston-Salem	−1.4	−2.4	−4.8	+1.6	+.3	+.4	+.5	−3.7	−.5
East South Central:									
Jackson	+.2	+2.5	+.3	+3.9	−1.7	−4.2	+1.1	−1.5	+2.2
Knoxville	−.3	−3.4	−7.8	+1.6	+4.2	+9.5	+.2	−5.5	−.4
West South Central:									
El Paso	−.3	−.3	−5.6	+2.8	+2.7	+2.6	−.4	−1.2	−1.3
Oklahoma City	+4.4	+.9	+.4	+.6	0	+20.8	+.1	−.4	+.5

ELECTRICITY

THE December 1934 issue of Retail Prices introduced a revised technique, whereby the prices for November 15, 1934, were given for three typical services of electricity for household customers for 51 cities, and a statement concerning the basis for the application of the rates in computing the prices. Since that time prices of electricity for household use have been computed quarterly. This publication presents comparable figures showing net monthly bills and average prices per kilowatt-hour as computed from rate schedules in effect on December 15, 1937, and a résumé of changes affecting the cost of electricity to domestic customers since December 15, 1936. Twenty-four cities have reported changes. Net monthly bills and average prices per kilowatt-hour before and after the change, and percentage change in the net monthly bills, are shown for these cities.

Prices on December 15, 1937

Residential rates for electricity are secured quarterly from 51 cities. These rates are used for computing average prices and typical bills in each city for the quantities of electricity which most nearly approximate the consumption requirements for the usual domestic services for a five-room house, including living room, dining room, kitchen, and two bedrooms. The blocks of consumption which have been selected

as representative of average conditions throughout the country are 25 and 40 kilowatt-hours for the use of electricity for lighting and small appliances alone; 100 kilowatt-hours for lighting, small appliances, and a refrigerator; and 250 kilowatt-hours for the addition of an electric range to the preceding equipment.

The technical specifications which are used as the basis for the application of these rates are:

Floor area (1,000 square feet).

Connected load:	*Watts*
Lighting and appliances	700
Refrigeration	300
Cooking	6,000
Measured demand:	
Lighting and appliances	600
Refrigeration	100
Cooking	2,300

Outlets: Fourteen 50-watt.

Active room count: In accordance with schedule of rates.

Typical bills and average prices per kilowatt-hour for the various blocks of consumption are shown in table 5 for each of the 51 cities.

TABLE 5.—*Total Net Monthly Bill and Price per Kilowatt-Hour for Specified Amounts of Electricity Based on Rates as of December 15, 1937, by Cities*

Region and city	Type of ownership [1]	Net monthly bill				Net monthly price per kilowatt-hour			
		25 kilowatt-hours	40 kilowatt-hours	100 kilowatt-hours	250 kilowatt-hours	25 kilowatt-hours	40 kilowatt-hours	100 kilowatt-hours	250 kilowatt-hours
		Lighting and small appliances	Lighting and small appliances	Lighting, appliances, and refrigerator	Lighting, appliances, refrigerator, and range	Lighting and small appliances	Lighting and small appliances	Lighting, appliances, and refrigerator	Lighting, appliances, refrigerator, and range
New England:						*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Boston	P	$1.55	$2.30	$5.10	$9.60	6.2	5.8	5.1	3.8
Bridgeport	P	1.31	2.05	4.87	8.70	5.3	5.1	4.9	3.5
Fall River	P	1.58	2.38	4.98	9.13	6.3	5.9	5.0	3.7
Manchester	P	2.00	2.80	5.00	8.00	8.0	7.0	5.0	3.2
New Haven	P	1.31	2.05	4.87	8.70	5.3	5.1	4.9	3.5
Portland, Maine	P	1.85	2.60	4.70	7.70	7.4	6.5	4.7	3.1
Providence	P	1.76	2.66	5.50	9.50	7.0	6.7	5.5	3.8
Middle Atlantic:									
Buffalo	P	1.13	1.70	3.06	5.31	4.5	4.3	3.1	2.1
Newark	P	1.84	2.54	4.44	8.69	7.4	6.4	4.4	3.5
New York: [2]									
Bronx	P	1.69	2.46	4.81	8.16	6.8	6.1	4.8	3.3
Brooklyn	P	1.69	2.46	4.81	8.16	6.8	6.1	4.8	3.3
Manhattan	P	1.69	2.46	4.81	8.16	6.8	6.1	4.8	3.3
Queens	P	1.69	2.46	4.81	8.16	6.8	6.1	4.8	3.3
	P	1.95	3.02	6.08	10.67	7.8	7.5	6.1	4.3
Richmond	P	2.19	3.17	5.62	9.09	8.8	7.9	5.6	3.6
Philadelphia	P	1.40	2.15	3.76	6.76	5.6	5.4	3.8	2.7
Pittsburgh	P	1.25	2.00	4.00	7.50	5.0	5.0	4.0	3.0
Rochester	P	1.59	2.26	4.56	7.81	6.3	5.7	4.6	3.1
Scranton	P	1.25	2.00	4.25	8.00	5.0	5.0	4.3	3.2
East North Central:									
Chicago	P	1.34	1.94	3.65	6.65	5.4	4.9	3.7	2.7
Cincinnati	P	1.00	1.45	2.50	4.75	4.0	3.6	2.5	1.9
Cleveland	P	1.00	1.60	3.75	7.25	4.0	4.0	3.8	2.9
	M	.85	1.27	2.80	5.55	3.4	3.2	2.8	2.2
Columbus	P	1.25	1.95	4.50	8.50	5.0	4.9	4.5	3.4
	M	1.00	1.58	3.80	8.30	4.0	4.0	3.8	3.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 5.—*Total Net Monthly Bill and Price per Kilowatt-Hour for Specified Amounts of Electricity Based on Rates as of December 15, 1937, by Cities*—Continued

Region and city	Type of ownership	Net monthly bill				Net monthly price per kilowatt-hour			
		25 kilowatt-hours	40 kilowatt-hours	100 kilowatt-hours	250 kilowatt-hours	25 kilowatt-hours	40 kilowatt-hours	100 kilowatt-hours	250 kilowatt-hours
		Lighting and small appliances	Lighting and small appliances	Lighting, appliances, and refrigerator	Lighting, appliances, refrigerator, and range	Lighting and small appliances	Lighting and small appliances	Lighting, appliances, and refrigerator	Lighting, appliances, refrigerator, and range
East North Central—Contd.						*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Detroit [3] [4]	P	$1.39	$1.95	$3.48	$6.95	5.6	4.9	3.5	2.8
Indianapolis	P	1.38	2.10	4.40	8.15	5.5	5.3	4.4	3.3
Milwaukee	P	1.41	1.90	3.48	6.35	5.7	4.8	3.5	2.5
Peoria	P	1.50	2.01	3.57	6.32	6.0	5.0	3.6	2.5
Springfield, Ill	P	1.25	1.90	[8] 3.02	[8] 5.22	5.0	4.8	[8] 3.0	[8] 2.1
	M	1.25	1.90	3.02	4.80	5.0	4.8	3.0	1.9
West North Central:									
Kansas City [3]	P	1.66	2.35	4.08	7.91	6.6	5.9	4.1	3.2
Minneapolis	P	1.47	1.99	3.61	6.60	5.9	5.0	3.6	2.6
Omaha	P	1.19	1.90	3.88	7.78	4.8	4.8	3.9	3.1
St. Louis [3] [5]	P	1.21	1.74	3.20	6.35	4.8	4.4	3.2	2.5
	P	1.09	1.45	2.91	5.81	4.4	3.6	2.9	2.3
St. Paul	P	1.60	2.15	3.85	7.00	6.4	5.4	3.9	2.8
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta:									
Immediate	P	1.45	2.12	3.95	6.57	5.8	5.3	3.9	2.6
Inducement [6]	P	1.22	1.90	3.85	6.57	4.9	4.7	3.8	2.6
Baltimore	P	1.13	1.80	3.90	8.20	4.5	4.5	3.9	3.3
Charleston, S. C.:									
Immediate	P	1.60	2.50	5.35	8.85	6.4	6.2	5.3	3.5
Objective [6]	P	1.50	2.25	4.20	6.82	6.0	5.6	4.2	2.7
Jacksonville	M	1.75	2.70	4.95	7.95	7.0	6.8	5.0	3.2
Norfolk	P	1.38	2.10	4.65	7.65	5.5	5.3	4.7	3.1
Richmond	P	1.38	2.10	4.65	7.65	5.5	5.3	4.7	3.1
Savannah	P	1.62	2.37	4.57	7.97	6.5	5.9	4.6	3.2
Washington	P	.98	1.56	3.10	5.65	3.9	3.9	3.1	2.3
East South Central:									
Birmingham:									
Immediate	P	1.25	2.00	3.75	7.30	5.0	5.0	3.8	2.9
Objective [6]	P	[7] 1.00	1.56	3.20	6.95	4.0	3.9	3.2	2.8
Louisville [4]	P	1.13	1.75	3.71	7.31	4.5	4.4	3.7	2.9
Memphis	P	1.38	2.20	4.25	8.75	5.5	5.5	4.3	3.5
Mobile:									
Present	P	1.45	2.13	3.95	6.58	5.8	5.3	4.0	2.6
Objective [6]	P	1.20	1.80	3.50	6.13	4.8	4.5	3.5	2.5
West South Central:									
Dallas	P	1.19	1.90	4.30	8.10	4.8	4.8	4.3	3.2
Houston	P	1.20	1.80	3.83	7.08	4.8	4.5	3.8	2.8
Little Rock: [3]									
Present	P	[8] 1.93	2.88	5.20	8.67	[8] 8.0	7.2	5.2	3.5
Centennial [6]	P	[8] 1.78	2.63	5.10	8.67	[8] 7.4	6.6	5.1	3.5
New Orleans	P	1.88	2.85	5.50	10.25	7.5	7.1	5.5	4.1
Mountain:									
Butte	P	1.55	2.38	4.43	7.93	6.2	5.9	4.4	3.2
Denver [3]	P	1.53	2.45	4.90	9.49	6.1	6.1	4.9	3.8
Salt Lake City: [3]									
Present	P	1.63	2.40	4.92	7.85	6.5	6.0	4.9	3.1
Objective [6]	P	1.63	2.30	3.83	7.14	6.5	5.7	3.8	2.9
Pacific:									
Los Angeles	P	1.10	1.65	2.97	5.10	4.4	4.1	3.0	2.0
	[9] M	1.10	1.65	2.97	5.10	4.4	4.1	3.0	2.0
Portland, Oreg	P	1.25	1.88	3.37	6.07	5.0	4.7	3.4	2.4
	P	1.25	1.88	3.37	6.07	5.0	4.7	3.4	2.4
San Francisco	P	1.30	1.77	3.09	5.89	5.2	4.4	3.1	2.4
Seattle	P	1.25	2.00	3.20	6.08	5.0	5.0	3.2	2.4
	M	1.25	2.00	3.20	6.10	5.0	5.0	3.2	2.4

[1] Type of ownership is indicated as follows: P, private utility; M, municipal plant.
[2] Prices include 2-percent sales tax.
[3] Prices include free lamp-renewal service.
[4] Prices include 3-percent sales tax.
[5] Revised.
[6] The "Inducement" rate in Atlanta, the "Objective" rate in Charleston (S. C.), Birmingham, Mobile, and Salt Lake City, and the "Centennial" rate in Little Rock are designed to encourage greater use of electricity.
[7] Minimum charge.
[8] Based on 24 kilowatt-hours in accordance with billing policy of operating company.
[9] The municipal plant absorbed 1 of the privately owned utilities Jan. 31, 1937.

Price Changes, December 16, 1936, to December 15, 1937

Changes in prices of electricity to residential customers since December 15, 1936, have been recorded for 24 of the 51 reporting cities. Rate reductions occurred in 22 widely separated cities, representing all regional areas. For seven of these cities—Cincinnati, Washington, D. C., Birmingham, Dallas, Salt Lake City, Los Angeles, and San Francisco—lowered rates were also reported during the 12 months prior to December 15, 1936. An increase in the Missouri State sales tax, effective June 8, 1937, advanced the price of electricity to customers in Kansas City and St. Louis.

Rate decreases lowered the cost for current for all 4 services in 14 of the 22 cities. These reductions amounted to 4.4 percent or more for each service in Scranton, Philadelphia, Indianapolis, Atlanta, San Francisco, and the Borough of Queens [1] in New York. The greatest general reduction covering all services was reported for Scranton, where decreases ranged from 12.4 percent for customers using 100 kilowatt-hours to 23.1 percent for those using 25 kilowatt-hours—the latter decrease being greater than that shown for any other city for the use of current for lighting and small appliances only. Other cities whose rate reductions were, in a lesser degree, most advantageous to the smaller users are: Fall River; Portland, Maine; Newark; Minneapolis; Birmingham ("Immediate" rate); Dallas; Salt Lake City ("Present" rate); Portland, Oreg.; New York (Bronx, Brooklyn, Manhattan, and Queens).

The greatest reductions for customers using 250 kilowatt-hours per month occurred in Cleveland where the municipal and privately owned utilities reported decreases of 25.0 and 26.6 percent respectively for this service. Other cities in which lower rates were most beneficial to customers using major appliances are: Bridgeport, New Haven, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, Milwaukee, Washington (D. C.), Los Angeles, and San Francisco.

Customers in Indianapolis using the intermediate amounts of current, 40 and 100 kilowatt-hours per month, received the greatest benefits from lowered rates. This condition was reversed for one company serving part of the customers in the Borough of Queens, New York. In Atlanta the price reductions under the "Immediate" rate were greatest for customers using major appliances, while the "Inducement" rate provided decreases for small users only.

Net monthly bills, average prices per kilowatt-hour, and percentage change from December 16, 1936, to December 15, 1937, inclusive, are published in the special Retail Price report for December 1937, copy of which will be furnished upon request of the Bureau.

[1] Smaller decreases were reported by companies serving other boroughs.

GAS

THERE was introduced in Retail Prices for November 1935 a revised technique whereby the first of a series of quarterly reports on prices for each of four consumption factors typical of the use of gas for domestic purposes were presented for 50 cities. This publication gives comparable figures showing net monthly bills and average prices per therm and per thousand cubic feet as computed from rates in effect on December 15, 1937; and also a résumé of changes affecting the cost of gas to domestic customers during the preceding year. Fourteen cities have reported changes. Net monthly bills and average prices per thousand cubic feet and per therm before and after the change, and percentage changes in the net monthly bills, are shown for these cities.

Prices on December 15, 1937

Residential rates for gas are secured from 50 cities. These rates are used in computing average prices and typical bills for each city for quantities of gas which approximate the average residential consumption requirements for each of four combinations of services. In order to put the rate quotations upon a comparable basis it is necessary to convert the normal consumption requirements used for computing monthly bills into an equivalent heating value expressed in therms (1 therm = 100,000 B. t. u.). This procedure is necessary because of the wide range in the heating value of a cubic foot of gas between different cities. The equipment and blocks of consumption which have been selected as representative of average conditions throughout the country are based upon the requirements of a five-room house, including living room, dining room, kitchen, and two bedrooms.

These specifications are:	*Therms*
Range	10. 6
Range and manual type water heater	19. 6
Range and automatic storage or instantaneous type water heater	30. 6
Range, automatic storage or instantaneous type water heater, and refrigerator	40. 6

Typical net monthly bills and prices per thousand cubic feet and per therm for these services for each city, presented in table 7, have been computed from rate schedules in effect on December 15, 1937.

TABLE 7.—*Total Net Monthly Bill and Prices per Thousand Cubic Feet and per Therm for Specified Amounts of Gas, Based on Rates as of December 15, 1937, by Cities*

Region and city	Kind of gas [1]	Heating value per cubic foot in British thermal units	Monthly consumption in cubic feet and net monthly bill based on specified numbers of therms [2]: 10.6 therms, Range		19.6 therms, Range and manual-type water heater		30.6 therms, Range and automatic [3] water heater		40.6 therms, Range, automatic [3] water heater, and refrigerator		Monthly price based on consumption of specified numbers of therms [2]: Per thousand cubic feet for— 10.6 therms, Range	19.6 therms, Range and manual-type water heater	30.6 therms, Range and automatic [3] water heater	40.6 therms, Range, automatic [3] water heater, and refrigerator	Per therm for— 10.6 therms, Range	19.6 therms, Range and manual-type water heater	30.6 therms, Range and automatic [3] water heater	40.6 therms, Range, automatic [3] water heater, and refrigerator
			Cubic feet	Bill	Cubic feet	Bill	Cubic feet	Bill	Cubic feet	Bill									
New England:				*Dollars*		*Dollars*		*Dollars*		*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Boston	M	535	1,980	2.48	3,660	4.16	5,720	5.70	7,590	7.19	1.25	1.14	1.00	0.95	23.4	21.2	18.6	17.7
	M	535	1,980	2.28	3,660	4.21	5,720	5.63	7,590	7.12	1.15	1.15	.98	.94	21.5	21.5	18.4	17.5
Fall River	M	528	2,010	2.53	3,710	4.06	5,800	5.94	7,690	7.64	1.26	1.09	1.02	.99	23.9	20.7	19.4	18.8
Manchester	M	525	2,020	2.85	3,730	4.82	5,830	5.67	7,730	6.92	1.41	1.29	.97	.89	26.8	24.6	18.5	17.0
New Haven	M	528	2,010	2.41	3,710	4.11	5,800	6.20	7,690	8.09	1.20	1.11	1.07	1.05	22.7	21.0	20.3	19.9
Portland, Maine	M	525	2,020	3.03	3,730	5.16	5,830	6.51	7,730	8.03	1.50	1.38	1.12	1.04	28.5	26.3	21.3	19.8
Providence	M	510	2,080	2.57	3,840	4.16	6,000	6.10	7,960	7.86	1.24	1.08	1.02	.99	24.3	21.2	19.9	19.4
Middle Atlantic:																		
Buffalo	X	900	1,180	.77	2,180	1.42	3,400	2.21	4,510	2.93	.65	.65	.65	.65	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2
Newark	M	525	2,020	2.69	3,730	4.31	5,830	6.06	7,730	7.29	1.33	1.16	1.04	.94	25.4	22.0	19.8	18.0
New York: [4]																		
Bronx	M	540	1,960	2.30	3,630	4.26	5,670	6.65	7,520	8.82	1.17	1.17	1.17	1.17	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7
Brooklyn	M	540	1,960	2.34	3,630	3.80	5,670	5.25	7,520	6.42	1.19	1.05	.93	.85	22.1	19.4	17.2	15.8
	M	540	1,960	2.43	3,630	4.05	5,670	6.03	7,520	7.82	1.24	1.12	1.06	1.04	23.0	20.7	19.7	19.3
	M	540	1,960	2.58	3,630	4.37	5,670	6.56	7,520	8.54	1.32	1.20	1.16	1.14	24.4	22.3	21.4	21.0
Manhattan	M	540	1,960	2.30	3,630	4.26	5,670	6.65	7,520	8.82	1.17	1.17	1.17	1.17	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7
Queens	M	540	1,960	2.30	3,630	4.26	5,670	6.65	7,520	8.82	1.17	1.17	1.17	1.17	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7
Richmond	M	540	1,960	3.10	3,630	5.10	5,670	7.08	7,520	8.87	1.58	1.40	1.25	1.18	29.3	26.0	23.1	21.8
Philadelphia	M	530	2,000	1.80	3,700	3.25	5,770	5.00	7,660	6.61	.90	.88	.87	.86	17.0	16.6	16.4	16.3
Pittsburgh	N	1,130	940	[5] 1.00	1,730	1.04	2,710	1.63	3,590	2.15	1.06	.60	.60	.60	9.4	5.3	5.3	5.3
	N	1,100	960	[5] 1.00	1,780	1.07	2,780	1.67	3,690	2.21	1.04	.60	.60	.60	9.4	5.4	5.4	5.4
	N	1,100	960	[5] 1.00	1,780	1.07	2,780	1.67	3,690	2.21	1.04	.60	.60	.60	9.4	5.4	5.4	5.4
Rochester	M	537	1,970	1.97	3,650	3.65	5,700	5.56	7,560	7.05	1.00	1.00	.98	.93	18.6	18.6	18.2	17.4
Scranton	M	520	2,040	2.89	3,770	4.57	5,880	5.77	7,810	7.60	1.41	1.21	.98	.97	27.2	23.3	18.8	18.7
East North Central:																		
	M	600	1,730	1.91	3,450	3.33	3,830	4.69	5,080	5.39	1.46	1.36	1.23	1.06	18.3	17.0	15.3	13.3

East North Central:																	
Chicago	X	800	1,330	1.94	2,450	3.33	3,830	4.69	5,080	5.39	1.46	1.36	1.23	1.06	18.3	17.0	15.3	13.3
Cincinnati	X	865	1,230	.91	2,270	1.63	3,540	2.45	4,690	3.16	.74	.72	.69	.67	8.6	8.3	8.0	7.8
Cleveland	N	1,100	960	[5].75	1,780	.89	2,780	1.43	3,690	1.93	.78	.50	.51	.52	7.1	4.5	4.7	4.8
Columbus	N	1,050	1,010	[5].75	1,870	1.03	2,910	1.60	3,870	2.13	.74	.55	.55	.55	7.1	5.2	5.2	5.2
	N	1,050	1,010	[5].75	1,870	.90	2,910	1.40	3,870	1.86	.74	.48	.48	.48	7.1	4.6	4.6	4.6
Detroit [6]	N	[7] 1,010	1,050	1.55	1,940	2.51	3,030	3.68	4,020	4.75	[7] 1.47	[7] 1.29	[7] 1.21	[7] 1.18	14.6	12.8	12.0	11.7
Indianapolis	M	570	1,860	1.58	3,440	2.92	5,370	4.57	7,120	6.05	.85	.85	.85	.85	14.9	14.9	14.9	14.9
Milwaukee	M	520	2,040	1.76	3,770	2.89	5,880	4.26	7,810	5.51	.86	.77	.72	.71	16.6	14.7	13.9	13.6
Peoria	N	1,000	1,060	2.12	1,960	3.64	3,060	4.67	4,060	5.57	2.00	1.86	1.53	1.37	20.0	18.6	15.3	13.7
Springfield, Ill	N	1,000	1,060	1.91	1,960	3.36	3,060	4.66	4,060	5.56	1.80	1.71	1.52	1.37	18.0	17.1	15.2	13.7
West North Central:																		
Kansas City [4]	N	[8] 1,040	1,020	1.33	1,880	2.12	2,940	3.05	3,900	3.88	1.31	1.13	1.04	1.00	12.6	10.8	10.0	9.6
Minneapolis	X	800	1,330	1.98	2,450	3.13	3,830	4.54	5,080	5.78	1.49	1.28	1.19	1.14	18.7	16.0	14.8	14.2
Omaha	M	555	1,910	1.46	3,530	2.27	5,510	3.26	7,320	4.16	.76	.64	.59	.57	13.7	11.6	10.6	10.2
St. Louis [4]	X	800	1,330	2.05	2,450	3.35	3,830	4.92	5,080	6.23	1.54	1.37	1.29	1.23	19.4	17.1	16.1	15.3
St. Paul	M	550	1,930	1.98	3,560	3.16	5,560	4.59	7,380	5.87	1.03	.89	.83	.79	18.7	16.1	15.0	14.5
South Atlantic:																		
Atlanta	N	980	1,080	1.78	2,000	2.70	3,120	3.77	4,140	4.38	1.65	1.35	1.21	1.06	16.8	13.8	12.3	10.8
Baltimore	M	500	2,120	1.80	3,920	3.33	6,120	4.78	8,120	6.08	.85	.85	.78	.75	17.0	17.0	15.6	15.0
Charleston, S. C.:																		
Immediate	M	550	1,930	2.70	3,560	4.98	5,560	7.19	7,380	9.01	1.40	1.40	1.29	1.22	25.5	25.5	23.5	22.2
Objective [9]	M	550	1,930	[10]	3,560	4.42	5,560	5.92	7,380	7.28	[10]	1.24	1.06	.99	[10]	22.6	19.3	17.9
Jacksonville	M	535	1,980	4.03	3,660	6.34	5,720	8.20	7,590	9.88	2.03	1.73	1.43	1.30	38.0	32.4	26.8	24.3
Norfolk	M	530	2,000	2.40	3,700	4.36	5,770	6.62	7,660	8.51	1.20	1.18	1.15	1.11	22.6	22.2	21.6	21.0
Richmond	M	525	2,020	2.63	3,730	4.78	5,830	6.05	7,730	7.76	1.30	1.28	1.04	1.00	24.8	24.4	19.8	19.1
Savannah	M	535	1,980	2.48	3,660	4.58	5,720	7.15	7,590	9.49	1.25	1.25	1.25	1.25	23.3	23.3	23.3	23.3
Washington, D. C	X	604	1,750	1.51	3,250	2.71	5,070	4.01	6,720	5.16	.86	.83	.79	.77	14.2	13.8	13.1	12.7
East South Central:																		
Birmingham	M	520	2,040	1.63	3,770	3.02	5,880	4.70	7,810	6.25	.80	.80	.80	.80	15.4	15.4	15.4	15.4
Louisville [6]	X	900	1,180	.92	2,180	1.43	3,400	2.06	4,510	2.63	.78	.66	.61	.58	8.7	7.3	6.7	6.5
Memphis	N	980	1,080	1.51	2,000	2.48	3,120	3.60	4,140	4.21	1.40	1.24	1.15	1.02	14.3	12.7	11.8	10.4
Mobile:																		
Present	N	960	1,100	2.25	2,040	3.43	3,190	4.75	4,230	5.43	2.05	1.68	1.49	1.28	21.2	17.5	15.5	13.4
Objective [9]	N	960	1,100	2.05	2,040	2.99	3,190	4.06	4,230	4.69	1.86	1.47	1.27	1.11	19.3	15.3	13.3	11.5
West South Central:																		
Dallas	N	1,050	1,010	1.26	1,870	1.84	2,910	2.54	3,870	3.19	1.25	.98	.87	.82	11.9	9.4	8.3	7.9
Houston	N	1,030	1,030	1.17	1,900	1.74	2,970	2.43	3,940	3.06	1.14	.91	.82	.78	11.0	8.9	7.9	7.5
Little Rock [4]	N	1,000	1,060	1.11	1,960	1.61	3,060	2.23	4,060	2.79	1.04	.82	.73	.69	10.4	8.2	7.3	6.9
New Orleans	N	950	1,120	1.26	2,060	2.10	3,220	3.15	4,270	4.09	1.12	1.02	.98	.96	11.9	10.7	10.3	10.1
Mountain:																		
Butte	N	850	1,250	1.11	2,310	1.59	3,600	2.17	4,780	2.70	.89	.69	.60	.57	10.5	8.1	7.1	6.7
Denver [4]	N	825	1,280	2.18	2,380	3.35	3,710	4.20	4,920	4.84	1.70	1.41	1.13	.98	20.6	17.1	13.7	11.9
Salt Lake City [4]	N	865	1,230	2.12	2,270	3.27	3,540	4.16	4,690	4.86	1.72	1.44	1.17	1.04	20.0	16.7	13.6	12.0
Pacific:																		
Los Angeles	N	1,100	960	1.25	1,780	1.81	2,780	2.42	3,690	2.95	1.30	1.01	.87	.80	11.8	9.2	7.9	7.3
Portland, Oreg	M	570	1,860	2.34	3,440	3.98	5,370	5.33	7,120	6.61	1.26	1.16	.99	.93	22.0	20.3	17.4	16.3
San Francisco	N	1,150	920	1.27	1,700	1.82	2,660	2.49	3,530	3.10	1.38	1.07	.94	.88	12.0	9.3	8.1	7.6
Seattle [6]	M	500	2,120	3.10	3,920	5.36	6,120	5.32	8,120	6.45	1.46	1.37	.87	.79	29.2	27.3	17.4	15.9

See footnotes on p. 542.

[1] Different kinds of gas are indicated as follows: M, manufactured; N, natural; X, mixed manufactured and natural.
[2] Typical monthly consumption for each service for a 5-room house (1 therm equals 100,000 B. t. u.).
[3] Automatic-storage or instantaneous water heater.
[4] Prices include 2-percent sales tax.
[5] Minimum charge.
[6] Prices include 3-percent sales tax.
[7] Revision based on the average heating value of gas served from December 1936 to December 1937. This revision has been extended back through December 1936, during which period prices per thousand cubic feet had been based on an estimated heating value of 1,000 B. t. u.
[8] Revised March 1937 for change from 1,000 to 1,040 B. t. u. per cubic foot—effective date not available.
[9] The "Objective" rates in Charleston and Mobile are designed to encourage a greater use of gas. An intermediate rate called the "Inducement" rate, also available in Mobile, provides a price lower than that of the "Present" rate for a part of the monthly consumption for customers whose increase in the use of gas is not sufficient to entitle them to the advantages of the "Objective" rate.
[10] The "Objective" rate is not applicable for customers using 10.6 therms for the reason that the bill would be higher than that computed under the "Immediate" rate.

Indexes of Changes in the Price of Gas

Series of indexes (1923–25=100) for all gas and for manufactured, natural, and mixed manufactured and natural gas have been computed for two of the services for which typical bills are published quarterly—10.6 therms, illustrating the use of gas for a range; and 30.6 therms, typical of heat requirements for both range and automatic water heater. These indexes have been computed for quarterly periods from March 1923 to December 1937, inclusive, and are based upon bills for these services for each of the 50 cities reporting to the Bureau. They are published annually in December.

Composite indexes and city indexes for each service together with the basic data used in their computation and a statement of methodology were published in "Changes in Retail Prices of Gas, 1923–1936," Bulletin No. 628 of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Changes in composite indexes since December 15, 1936, were relatively unimportant to manufactured gas customers using 10.6 therms for range only, and to all customers served with natural gas or mixed manufactured and natural gas. The sharp drop of 5.1 percent in prices of 30.6 therms of manufactured gas in June 1937, followed by an equally abrupt advance of 4.9 percent in December resulted in large measure from the introduction of a summer rate which was available to customers in the Bronx, Manhattan, and Queens boroughs of New York. This rate provided a price considerably lower than the winter rate for all gas consumed in excess of 3,000 cubic feet (16.2 therms). The influence of these changes is also reflected in the all-gas index for 30.6 therms for 50 cities combined.

Table 8 presents composite indexes for the 50 cities combined, together with separate indexes for manufactured, natural, and mixed gas, for December of specified years from 1924 to 1935 and for the quarterly periods from March 1936 to December 1937, inclusive.

TABLE 8.—*Indexes of Retail Prices of Gas*

March, June, September, and December 1937 and 1936 and December of specified years, 1924–35

[1923–25=100]

Date	10.6 therms, range				30.6 therms, range and water heater			
	All gas	Manufactured	Natural	Mixed	All gas	Manufactured	Natural	Mixed
	50 cities	1923, 40 cities; 1937, 24 cities	1923, 7 cities; 1937, 19 cities	1923, 3 cities; 1937, 7 cities	50 cities	1923, 40 cities; 1937, 24 cities	1923, 7 cities; 1937, 19 cities	1923, 3 cities; 1937, 7 cities
1924: December	100.0	100.1	98.7	98.9	100.0	100.0	102.0	98.9
1926: December	99.9	99.6	107.1	101.0	99.6	99.4	108.1	101.0
1928: December	99.5	99.1	119.4	101.0	97.3	98.3	108.5	101.0
1930: December	99.3	100.3	119.2	99.3	94.0	96.7	108.3	98.8
1932: December	97.4	99.3	119.2	98.1	89.7	92.8	108.3	97.5
1934: December	97.4	100.1	115.0	98.3	88.5	92.7	104.5	92.9
1935: December	97.2	100.0	114.1	98.3	86.8	90.4	104.0	92.5
1936: March	97.1	100.0	114.0	[1] 98.0	86.6	90.3	103.2	92.0
June	96.9	99.9	112.9	98.1	86.4	90.2	101.4	92.1
September	96.9	99.9	113.0	98.1	86.4	90.2	[1] 101.4	92.0
December	96.5	99.8	113.0	98.3	85.0	90.0	[1] 101.4	[1] 92.2
1937: March	96.4	99.8	112.8	98.2	85.0	89.9	101.3	92.2
June	96.5	99.8	112.8	98.3	82.2	85.3	101.2	[1] 92.3
September	96.6	100.0	112.8	98.4	82.1	85.2	101.2	92.5
December	96.6	100.0	112.8	98.4	84.7	89.4	101.2	92.5

[1] Revised.

Price Changes, December 16, 1936–December 15, 1937

Price changes occurred during the year in the following 14 cities: New York (Bronx, Manhattan, and Queens), Scranton, Milwaukee, Kansas City, Minneapolis, Omaha, St. Louis, St. Paul, Charleston (S. C.), Richmond, Savannah, Washington (D. C.), Birmingham, and Los Angeles.

New rate schedules were introduced in 9 of the 14 cities, changes were reported in the heating value of the gas served in 3, and an increase in State sales tax advanced the price to the consumer in the remaining 2.

General rate reductions reported for eight cities resulted in lower prices of gas for all residential customers in Scranton, Omaha, and Los Angeles; and for customers using major appliances in addition to a range in Richmond, New York, Charleston (S. C.), Milwaukee, and St. Paul. The greatest reductions occurred in Richmond where prices dropped 18.6 percent for customers using 30.6 therms, and 21.0 percent for those using 40.6 therms. Substantial reductions during the summer months only were also reported for New York. An "Objective" rate schedule made available in Charleston (S. C.) provided lower prices to customers whose consumption of gas had increased sufficiently to produce a monthly bill equal to or greater than that computed under the old rate for the corresponding month of the preceding year.

Although there were decreases in the cost of gas to the larger consumers in Milwaukee and St. Paul, prices for 10.6 therms for range only advanced 1.8 percent and 14.2 percent respectively, in these cities. A rate increase in Minneapolis advanced prices slightly for all services. Prices also advanced in Savannah and Birmingham due to decreases in the heating value of the gas served. In Washington an increase in the heating value lowered the price slightly.

Typical net monthly bills, prices per thousand cubic feet and per therm, and percentage change from December 16, 1936, to December 15, 1937, inclusive, are published in the special Retail Price report for December 1937, copy of which will be furnished upon request to the Bureau.

WHOLESALE PRICES, DECEMBER AND YEAR 1937

WHOLESALE commodity prices for the year 1937 were 6.8 percent above the 1936 level, according to the all-commodity index, which advanced from 80.8 to 86.3. Prices rose steadily until April, when the year's high point—88.0—was reached. A downward tendency was evidenced during May and June, followed by a pronounced rise in July. After July, however, when the index stood at 87.9, a sharp decline began and continued throughout the year. By December the index had fallen to 81.7, representing a decline of 7.1 from the July level.

Each of the 10 major commodity groups averaged higher in 1937 than in 1936. The miscellaneous commodity group registered the greatest gain—10.4 percent. During the year period metals advanced 10.0 percent; building materials and housefurnishing goods, 9.8 percent; hides and leather products, 9.6 percent; farm products, 6.8 percent; textile products, 6.7 percent; chemicals and drugs, 4.4 percent; foods, 4.1 percent; and fuel and lighting materials, 1.8 percent.

Between 1936 and 1937 the semimanufactured articles group of commodities advanced 12.4 percent. Finished product prices rose 6.3 percent, and raw materials increased 6.1 percent. According to the index for "All commodities other than farm products," nonagricultural commodity prices advanced 6.8 percent. Industrial commodity prices, as measured by the index for "All commodities other than farm products and foods" rose 7.2 percent.

Commodity prices generally have advanced sharply from the low of February 1933, when the all-commodity index receded to 59.8. The group increases during this period range from 17.8 for chemicals and drugs to 111.2 percent for farm products. Although each of the commodity groups in 1937 was above the depression low point, each is below the year 1929.

A comparison of the 1937 group and subgroup indexes with 1936, 1929, and the low points falling between June 1930 and June 1935 is shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices for Year 1937 Compared With 1936, 1929, and Low Points Between June 1930, and June 1935*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	Index		Percentage change, 1936 to 1937	Low between June 1930 and June 1935		Percentage change, low to 1937	Index, year 1929	Percentage change, 1929 to 1937
	Year 1937	Year 1936		Month	Index			
All commodities	86.3	80.8	+6.8	February 1933	59.8	+44.3	95.3	−9.4
Farm products	86.4	80.9	+6.8	do	40.9	+111.2	104.9	−17.6
Grains	98.3	88.3	+11.3	December 1932	31.7	+210.1	97.4	+0.9
Livestock and poultry	95.5	84.7	+12.8	January 1933	37.8	+152.6	106.1	−10.0
Other farm products	77.2	76.0	+1.6	February 1933	44.2	+74.7	106.6	−27.6
Foods	85.5	82.1	+4.1	do	53.7	+59.2	99.9	−14.4
Dairy products	83.1	83.9	−1.0	March 1933	50.9	+63.3	105.6	−21.3
Cereal products	87.6	86.2	+1.6	February 1933	60.4	+45.0	88.0	−0.5
Fruits and vegetables	74.2	71.9	+3.2	October 1932	52.2	+42.1	97.8	−24.1
Meats	99.1	87.8	+12.9	December 1933	46.0	+115.4	109.1	−9.2
Other foods	75.6	75.9	−0.4	February 1933	54.1	+39.7	93.9	−19.5
Hides and leather products	104.6	95.4	+9.6	do	68.0	+53.8	109.1	−4.1
Shoes	105.0	99.8	+5.2	March 1933	83.2	+26.2	106.3	−1.2
Hides and skins	113.5	94.6	+20.0	June 1932	32.5	+249.2	112.7	+0.7
Leather	96.8	85.6	+13.1	February 1933	55.3	+75.0	113.2	−14.5
Other leather products	102.6	95.5	+7.4	April 1933	77.2	+32.9	106.4	−3.6
Textile products	76.3	71.5	+6.7	February 1933	51.2	+49.0	90.4	−15.6
Clothing	87.9	81.1	+8.4	July 1932	60.9	+44.3	90.0	−2.3
Cotton goods	84.3	80.3	+5.0	February 1933	49.1	+71.7	98.8	−14.7
Knit goods	65.1	61.2	+6.4	March 1933	47.1	+38.2	88.5	−26.4
Silk and rayon	32.5	31.2	+4.2	September 1934	24.3	+33.7	80.4	−59.6
Woolen and worsted goods	91.1	82.9	+9.9	February 1933	53.2	+71.2	88.3	+3.2
Other textile products	68.4	67.0	+2.1	do	66.2	+3.3	93.1	−26.5
Fuel and lighting materials	77.6	76.2	+1.8	May 1933	60.4	+28.5	83.0	−6.5
Anthracite	77.8	80.5	−3.4	May 1935	73.0	+6.6	90.1	−13.7
Bituminous coal	98.6	97.4	+1.2	April 1933	78.1	+26.2	91.3	+8.0
Coke	103.1	94.7	+8.9	March 1933	75.2	+37.1	84.6	+21.9
Electricity	[1]	83.4		April 1934	88.3		94.5	
Gas	[1]	85.2		January 1935	87.6		93.1	
Petroleum products	60.5	57.3	+5.6	May 1933	31.2	+93.9	71.3	−15.1
Metals and metal products	95.7	87.0	+10.0	April 1933	76.9	+24.4	100.5	−4.8
Agricultural implements	94.0	94.2	−.2	June 1933	83.0	+13.3	98.7	−4.8
Iron and steel	98.2	87.6	+12.1	May 1933	75.2	+30.6	94.9	+3.5
Motor vehicles [2]	89.3	83.3	+7.2	April 1933	82.7	+8.0	100.0	−10.7
Nonferrous metals	89.6	71.6	+25.1	February 1933	46.2	+93.9	106.1	−15.6
Plumbing and heating	78.8	75.0	+5.1	do	59.4	+32.7	95.0	−17.1
Building materials	95.2	86.7	+9.8	August 1932	69.6	+36.8	95.4	−.2
Brick and tile	93.5	88.7	+5.4	March 1933	74.9	+24.8	94.3	−.8
Cement	95.5	95.5	0	November 1931	74.6	+28.0	91.8	+4.0
Lumber	99.0	84.5	+17.2	August 1932	55.5	+78.4	93.8	+5.5
Paint and paint materials	83.4	80.1	+4.1	July 1932	66.8	+24.9	94.9	−12.1
Plumbing and heating	78.8	75.0	+5.1	February 1933	59.4	+32.7	95.0	−17.1
Structural steel	113.2	95.0	+19.2	January 1932	77.3	+46.4	98.1	+15.4
Other building materials	99.1	90.2	+9.9	June 1932	77.6	+27.7	97.7	+1.4
Chemicals and drugs	83.9	80.4	+4.4	March 1933	71.2	+17.8	94.2	−10.9
Chemicals	89.9	87.2	+3.1	July 1934	78.5	+14.5	99.1	−9.3
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	79.1	74.4	+6.3	April 1933	54.6	+44.9	71.5	+10.6
Fertilizer materials	71.2	65.9	+8.0	February 1933	61.5	+15.8	92.1	−22.7
Mixed fertilizers	73.2	68.4	+7.0	April 1933	60.0	+22.0	97.2	−24.7
Housefurnishing goods	89.7	81.7	+9.8	do	71.5	+25.5	94.3	−4.9
Furnishings	93.4	85.3	+9.5	do	71.7	+30.3	93.6	−0.2
Furniture	85.9	78.0	+10.1	do	71.5	+20.1	95.0	−9.6
Miscellaneous	77.8	70.5	+10.4	do	57.8	+34.6	82.6	−5.8
Automobile tires and tubes	55.8	47.2	+18.2	do	37.4	+49.2	54.5	+2.4
Cattle feed	110.5	94.4	+17.1	December 1932	37.1	+197.8	121.6	−9.1
Paper and pulp	91.7	80.7	+13.6	April 1933	70.6	+29.9	88.9	+3.1
Rubber, crude	40.5	34.2	+18.4	June 1932	5.8	+598.3	42.3	−4.3
Other miscellaneous	84.7	81.1	+4.4	March 1933	72.6	+16.7	98.4	−13.9
Raw materials	84.8	79.9	+6.1	February 1933	48.4	+75.2	97.5	−13.0
Semimanufactured articles	85.3	75.9	+12.4	July 1932	55.5	+53.7	93.9	−9.2
Finished products	87.2	82.0	+6.3	February 1933	65.7	+32.7	94.5	−7.7
All commodities other than farm products	86.2	80.7	+6.8	April 1933	63.7	+35.3	93.3	−7.6
All commodities other than farm products and foods	85.3	79.6	+7.2	do	65.3	+30.6	91.6	−6.9

[1] Data not yet available.
[2] Preliminary revision.

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for each year 1929 to 1937, inclusive, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	1937	1936	1935	1934	1933	1932	1931	1930	1929
All commodities	86.3	80.8	80.0	74.9	65.9	64.8	73.0	86.4	95.3
Farm products	86.4	80.9	78.8	65.3	51.4	48.2	64.8	88.3	104.9
Grains	98.3	88.3	82.5	74.5	53.1	39.4	53.0	78.3	97.4
Livestock and poultry	95.5	84.7	85.1	51.5	43.4	48.2	63.9	89.2	106.1
Other farm products	77.2	76.0	73.4	70.5	55.8	51.4	69.2	91.1	106.6
Foods	85.5	82.1	83.7	70.5	60.5	61.0	74.6	90.5	99.9
Dairy products	83.1	83.9	79.8	72.7	60.7	61.3	81.8	95.5	105.6
Cereal products	87.6	86.2	94.1	88.7	75.0	66.4	73.1	81.5	88.0
Fruits and vegetables	74.2	71.9	63.6	67.5	61.7	58.0	72.4	96.6	97.8
Meats	99.1	87.8	94.5	62.9	50.0	58.2	75.4	98.4	109.1
Other foods	75.6	75.9	77.7	66.6	61.1	60.7	69.8	80.9	93.9
Hides and leather products	104.6	95.4	89.6	86.6	80.9	72.9	86.1	100.0	109.1
Shoes	105.0	99.8	98.0	98.1	90.2	86.1	93.7	102.0	106.3
Hides and skins	113.5	94.6	80.8	68.6	67.1	42.1	60.2	91.0	112.7
Leather	96.8	85.6	80.1	75.0	71.4	65.1	86.2	101.3	113.2
Other leather products	102.6	95.5	85.0	86.6	81.1	90.1	101.4	105.5	106.4
Textile products	76.3	71.5	70.9	72.9	64.8	54.9	66.3	80.3	90.4
Clothing	87.9	81.1	79.8	82.5	72.2	63.0	75.9	86.2	90.0
Cotton goods	84.3	80.3	83.4	86.5	71.2	54.0	66.1	84.7	98.8
Knit goods	65.1	61.2	61.8	63.2	58.9	51.6	60.9	80.0	88.5
Silk and rayon	32.5	31.2	30.2	26.7	30.6	31.0	43.5	60.2	80.4
Woolen and worsted goods	91.1	82.9	76.1	79.7	69.3	57.7	68.2	79.0	88.3
Other textile products	68.4	67.0	68.5	73.1	72.5	67.9	75.1	84.2	93.1
Fuel and lighting materials	77.6	76.2	73.5	73.3	66.3	70.3	67.5	78.5	83.0
Anthracite	77.8	80.5	79.7	80.1	82.2	88.4	91.1	89.1	90.1
Bituminous coal	98.6	97.4	96.7	94.5	82.8	82.0	84.6	89.4	91.3
Coke	103.1	94.7	88.6	84.8	77.9	77.7	82.4	84.0	84.6
Electricity	[1]	83.4	87.8	91.8	94.3	104.7	98.8	97.7	94.5
Gas	[1]	85.2	89.3	93.4	97.5	101.3	98.7	97.3	93.1
Petroleum products	60.5	57.3	51.3	50.5	41.0	45.4	39.5	61.5	71.3
Metals and metal products	95.7	87.0	86.4	86.9	79.8	80.2	84.5	92.1	100.5
Agricultural implements	94.0	94.2	93.7	89.6	83.5	84.9	92.1	95.0	98.7
Iron and steel	98.2	87.6	86.7	86.7	78.6	79.4	83.3	89.1	94.9
Motor vehicles [2]	89.3	83.3	84.1	87.6	83.2	87.1	89.5	94.0	100.0
Nonferrous metals	89.6	71.6	68.6	67.7	59.6	49.8	61.9	82.4	106.1
Plumbing and heating	78.8	75.0	68.9	72.6	67.1	66.8	84.7	88.6	95.0
Building materials	95.2	86.7	85.3	86.2	77.0	71.4	79.2	89.9	95.4
Brick and tile	93.5	88.7	89.4	90.2	79.2	77.3	83.6	89.8	94.3
Cement	95.5	95.5	95.3	93.2	86.1	77.2	79.4	91.8	91.8
Lumber	99.0	84.5	81.1	84.5	70.7	58.5	69.5	85.8	93.8
Paint and paint materials	83.4	80.1	79.8	79.5	73.3	71.1	79.4	90.5	94.9
Plumbing and heating	78.8	75.0	68.9	72.6	67.1	66.8	84.7	88.6	95.0
Structural steel	113.2	95.0	92.0	90.8	83.1	80.9	83.1	87.3	98.1
Other building materials	99.1	90.2	90.1	90.3	82.7	79.5	84.8	93.3	97.7
Chemicals and drugs	83.9	80.4	80.5	75.9	72.6	73.5	79.3	89.1	94.2
Chemicals	89.9	87.2	86.9	79.6	79.6	79.5	83.0	93.7	99.1
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	79.1	74.4	73.9	72.1	56.3	57.7	62.8	68.0	71.5
Fertilizer materials	71.2	65.9	66.3	67.1	65.9	66.9	76.8	85.6	92.1
Mixed fertilizers	73.2	68.4	70.6	72.5	64.5	69.3	82.0	93.6	97.2
Housefurnishing goods	89.7	81.7	80.6	81.5	75.8	75.1	84.9	92.7	94.3
Furnishings	93.4	85.3	84.2	84.1	76.6	75.4	82.2	91.4	93.6
Furniture	85.9	78.0	77.0	79.0	75.1	75.0	88.0	94.0	95.0
Miscellaneous	77.8	70.5	68.3	69.7	62.5	64.4	69.8	77.7	82.6
Automobile tires and tubes	55.8	47.2	45.7	44.9	42.1	41.1	46.0	51.3	54.5
Cattle feed	110.5	94.4	88.3	89.4	57.9	46.0	62.7	99.7	121.6
Paper and pulp	91.7	80.7	80.0	82.7	76.6	75.5	81.4	86.1	88.9
Rubber, crude	40.5	34.2	25.4	26.5	12.2	7.3	12.8	24.5	42.3
Other miscellaneous	84.7	81.1	80.0	82.1	76.2	83.7	88.0	95.5	98.4
Raw materials	84.8	79.9	77.1	68.6	56.5	55.1	65.6	84.3	97.5
Semimanufactured articles	85.3	75.9	73.6	72.8	65.4	59.3	69.0	81.8	93.9
Finished products	87.2	82.0	82.2	78.2	70.5	70.3	77.0	88.0	94.5
All commodities other than farm products	86.2	80.7	80.2	76.9	69.0	68.3	74.6	85.9	93.3
All commodities other than farm products and foods	85.3	79.6	77.9	78.4	71.2	70.2	75.0	85.2	91.6

[1] Data not yet available.

[2] Preliminary revision.

Wholesale Price Level in December

Sharp declines in prices of farm products, foods, and hides and leather products largely accounted for a decrease of 1.9 percent in the all-commodity index during December.

The decrease brought the combined index of 784 price series to 81.7 percent of the 1926 average, representing a decrease of 7.2 percent from the year's high point (April) and a decrease of 3.0 percent from December 1936.

Each of the 10 commodity groups, except fuel and lighting materials, averaged lower during the month. The decreases ranged from 0.5 percent for the metals and metal products and miscellaneous commodity groups to 4.0 percent for foods.

The number of items for which prices increased, decreased, or remained steady during December are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Number of Commodities Changing in Price from November to December 1937*

Group	Increases	Decreases	No change
All commodities	94	278	412
Farm products	32	33	2
Foods	34	50	38
Hides and leather products	1	27	13
Textile products	2	62	48
Fuel and lighting materials	9	9	6
Metals and metal products	2	26	102
Building materials	2	28	56
Chemicals and drugs	5	14	70
Housefurnishing goods	1	10	50
Miscellaneous	6	19	27

Wholesale prices of raw materials declined 2.3 percent in December to the lowest level reached in the past 3 years. Compared with December 1936, raw material prices dropped 11.9 percent. Semimanufactured commodity prices declined 2.6 percent during the month and are 5.6 percent below a year ago. The fluctuations in the finished products group have been less pronounced. Although the December index is 1.6 percent below the November level, it is 1.8 percent above December 1936.

The index for the large group "All commodities other than farm products," marking the movement in prices of nonagricultural commodities, fell 1.5 percent. The index for "All commodities other than farm products and foods," representing the trend in prices of industrial commodities, dropped 0.8 percent. That the decline in the general index during the year was caused primarily by weakening prices of farm products and foods is shown by the fact that the price level for "All commodities other than farm products" was 0.5 percent above a year ago and that for "All commodities other than farm products and foods" was 1.7 percent above December 1936.

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A comparison of the December level of wholesale commodity prices with November 1937 and December 1936 is given in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Comparison of Index Numbers for December 1937 With November 1937 and December 1936*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	December 1937	November 1937	Change from a month ago	December 1936	Change from a year ago
			Percent		*Percent*
All commodities	81.7	83.3	−1.9	84.2	−3.0
Farm products	72.8	75.7	−3.8	88.5	−17.7
Foods	79.8	83.1	−4.0	85.5	−6.7
Hides and leather products	97.7	101.4	−3.6	99.7	−2.0
Textile products	70.1	71.2	−1.5	76.3	−8.1
Fuel and lighting materials	78.4	78.2	+.3	76.5	+2.5
Metals and metal products	96.3	96.8	−.5	89.6	+7.5
Building materials	92.5	93.7	−1.3	89.5	+3.4
Chemicals and drugs	79.5	80.2	−.9	85.3	−6.8
Housefurnishing goods	89.7	90.4	−.8	83.2	+7.8
Miscellaneous	75.0	75.4	−.5	74.5	+.7
Raw materials	75.4	77.2	−2.3	85.6	−11.9
Semimanufactured articles	77.7	79.8	−2.6	82.3	−5.6
Finished products	85.3	86.7	−1.6	83.8	+1.8
All commodities other than farm products	83.5	84.8	−1.5	83.1	+.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods	83.6	84.3	−.8	82.2	+1.7

Largely because of decreases of 9.7 percent in meats and 6.0 percent in fruits and vegetables, the wholesale foods group declined 4.0 percent to the lowest level reached since May 1936. Quotations were lower for cheese, dried apples, prunes, raisins, canned corn, fresh beef, mutton, cured and fresh pork, veal, cocoa beans, coffee, copra, salt mackerel, glucose, lard, oleo oil, and tallow. Dairy products advanced 1.1 percent and cereal products increased 0.6 percent. Higher prices were reported for powdered milk, corn meal, and pepper. The December food index—79.8—is 6.7 percent below the December 1936 comparative.

Wholesale market prices of farm products decreased 3.8 principally because of a drop of 9.0 percent in livestock and poultry prices. Sharp declines were reported in prices of cows, steers, hogs, sheep, eggs, apples, lemons, oranges, hops, tobacco, and wool. Grains advanced 3.3 percent. Quotations were higher for corn, wheat, calves, cotton, seeds, onions, and sweetpotatoes. The December 1937 group index—72.8—is at the lowest point reached in the past 3 years, and is 17.7 percent below a year ago.

The hides and leather products group index declined 3.6 percent as a result of lower prices for shoes, luggage, hides, skins, and leather. In the past 4 months this group decreased 9.6 percent.

Continued weakness in prices of cotton goods and raw silk together with lower prices for clothing, knit goods, woolen and worsted goods

and certain other textiles such as raw jute caused the textile products index to fall 1.5 percent.

The building materials group index declined 1.3 percent because of decreases of 1.6 percent in paint and paint materials, 1.1 percent in lumber, and 1.0 percent in brick and tile. Pronounced price decreases were reported for concrete blocks, Ponderosa pine and spruce lumber, carbon black, red lead, litharge, Chinawood oil, rosin, door and window frames, sewer pipe, and prepared roofing. Wholesale prices of cement and structural steel remained unchanged at the November level.

Primarily due to falling prices for fats, oils, calcium acetate, copper sulphate, glycerine, menthol, ground bones, and mixed fertilizers, the chemicals and drugs group index decreased 0.9 percent. Calcium chloride, granulated salt, soda phosphate, and tankage prices advanced.

The housefurnishing goods group index decreased 0.8 percent during the month. Both furniture and furnishings shared in the decline.

Falling prices for nonferrous metals including antimony, electrolytic copper, pig lead, lead pipe, quicksilver, copper rods and wire, and pig zinc; also concrete reinforcing bars, locks, and knobs resulted in a decline of 0.5 percent in the metals and metal products group index. Average wholesale prices of agricultural implements and motor vehicles advanced slightly. Plumbing and heating fixtures remained steady.

Cattle feed prices decreased 1.9 percent during December and paper and pulp declined 0.7 percent. Lower prices were also reported for cylinder and neutral oils, garden hose, and soap products. Crude rubber advanced 2.0 percent and automobile tires and tubes remained unchanged at last month's level.

Fuel and lighting materials advanced 0.3 percent. Coal, coke, and electricity prices were higher and gas and petroleum products were lower.

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups

In table 5 are presented index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups, by years from 1926 to 1937, inclusive, and by months from January 1936 through December 1937.

TABLE 5.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and drugs	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
By years:											
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1927	99.4	96.7	107.7	95.6	88.3	96.3	94.7	96.8	97.5	91.0	95.4
1928	105.9	101.0	121.4	95.5	84.3	97.0	94.1	95.6	95.1	85.4	96.7
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.2	94.3	82.6	95.3
1930	88.3	90.5	100.0	80.3	78.5	92.1	89.9	89.1	92.7	77.7	86.4
1931	64.8	74.6	86.1	66.3	67.5	84.5	79.2	79.3	84.9	69.8	73.0
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.5	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.6	75.8	62.5	65.9
1934	65.3	70.5	86.6	72.9	73.3	86.9	86.2	75.9	81.5	69.7	74.9
1935	78.8	83.7	89.6	70.9	73.5	86.4	85.3	80.5	80.6	68.3	80.0
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	80.4	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	83.9	89.7	77.8	86.3
By months:											
1936:											
January	78.2	83.5	97.1	71.7	75.1	86.7	85.7	80.5	81.4	67.8	80.6
February	79.5	83.2	96.1	71.0	76.1	86.7	85.5	80.1	81.5	68.1	80.6
March	76.5	80.1	94.9	70.8	76.2	86.6	85.3	79.3	81.4	68.3	79.6
April	76.9	80.2	94.6	70.2	76.4	86.6	85.7	78.5	81.5	68.6	79.7
May	75.2	78.0	94.0	69.8	76.0	86.3	85.8	77.7	81.5	69.2	78.6
June	78.1	79.9	93.8	69.7	76.1	86.2	85.8	78.0	81.4	69.7	79.2
July	81.3	81.4	93.4	70.5	76.2	86.9	86.7	79.4	81.2	71.0	80.5
August	83.8	83.1	93.6	70.9	76.3	87.1	86.9	79.8	81.4	71.5	81.6
September	84.0	83.3	94.6	70.9	76.1	86.8	87.1	81.7	81.7	71.3	81.6
October	84.0	82.6	95.6	71.6	76.8	86.9	87.3	82.2	82.0	71.5	81.5
November	85.1	83.9	97.0	73.5	76.8	87.9	87.7	82.5	82.3	73.4	82.4
December	88.5	85.5	99.7	76.3	76.5	89.6	89.5	85.3	83.2	74.5	84.2
1937:											
January	91.3	87.1	101.7	77.5	76.6	90.9	91.3	87.7	86.5	76.2	85.9
February	91.4	87.0	102.7	77.5	76.8	91.7	93.3	87.8	87.9	77.3	86.3
March	94.1	87.5	104.2	78.3	76.2	96.0	95.9	87.5	88.4	79.5	87.8
April	92.2	85.5	106.3	79.5	76.8	96.5	96.7	86.9	89.0	81.1	88.0
May	89.8	84.2	106.7	78.7	77.2	95.8	97.2	84.5	89.3	80.5	87.4
June	88.5	84.7	106.4	78.2	77.5	95.9	96.9	83.6	89.5	79.4	87.2
July	89.3	86.2	106.7	78.3	78.1	96.1	96.7	83.9	89.7	79.0	87.9
August	86.4	86.7	108.1	77.1	78.4	97.0	96.3	82.2	91.1	77.3	87.5
September	85.9	88.0	107.6	75.3	78.7	97.1	96.2	81.4	91.1	77.0	87.4
October	80.4	85.5	106.7	73.5	78.5	96.4	95.4	81.2	91.0	76.2	85.4
November	75.7	83.1	101.4	71.2	78.2	96.8	93.7	80.2	90.4	75.4	83.3
December	72.8	79.8	97.7	70.1	78.4	96.3	92.5	79.5	89.7	75.0	81.7

Index numbers by groups and subgroups of commodities for each month of 1937 and the average for the year 1937 are shown in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	January 1937	February 1937	March 1937	April 1937	May 1937	June 1937	July 1937	August 1937	September 1937	October 1937	November 1937	December 1937	Year 1937
All commodities	85.9	86.3	87.8	88.0	87.4	87.2	87.9	87.5	87.4	85.4	83.3	81.7	86.3
Farm products	91.3	91.4	94.1	92.2	89.8	88.5	89.3	86.4	85.9	80.4	75.7	72.8	86.4
Grains	113.0	111.5	113.2	119.2	113.9	105.7	105.2	92.0	91.9	77.0	69.2	71.5	98.3
Livestock and poultry	91.4	89.9	93.7	93.6	95.9	98.3	105.0	108.2	106.7	98.5	86.2	78.4	95.5
Other farm products	84.8	86.3	88.5	83.4	79.0	77.4	75.1	71.4	71.2	70.1	70.7	69.3	77.2
Foods	87.1	87.0	87.5	85.5	84.2	84.7	86.2	86.7	88.0	85.5	83.1	79.8	85.5
Dairy products	88.9	88.7	90.2	78.5	73.1	72.0	76.4	79.7	84.8	86.7	89.2	90.2	83.1
Cereal products	88.1	89.3	90.1	89.8	88.7	90.4	92.3	87.9	86.1	84.6	81.5	82.0	87.6
Fruits and vegetables	82.4	87.8	86.5	83.5	84.1	84.5	71.2	65.3	64.0	62.2	61.5	57.8	74.2
Meats	90.6	90.3	92.0	94.9	95.9	98.0	106.0	112.1	113.4	107.4	98.3	88.8	99.1
Other foods	82.1	78.8	78.2	77.0	75.2	74.3	74.6	73.6	75.5	73.4	73.6	71.5	75.6

TABLE 6.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities*—Continued

Group and subgroup	January 1937	February 1937	March 1937	April 1937	May 1937	June 1937	July 1937	August 1937	September 1937	October 1937	November 1937	December 1937	Year 1937
Hides and leather products	101.7	102.7	104.2	106.3	106.7	106.4	106.7	108.1	107.6	106.7	101.4	97.7	104.6
Shoes	99.7	101.4	102.3	103.8	106.1	107.5	107.4	107.4	107.5	107.6	106.9	105.6	105.0
Hides and skins	116.0	114.9	118.5	121.4	117.7	114.6	116.2	122.1	120.7	117.1	94.6	85.5	113.5
Leather	94.3	95.5	97.1	100.7	100.6	98.8	98.7	100.0	98.9	97.2	92.7	86.9	96.8
Other leather products	101.1	101.7	101.7	102.3	102.3	102.3	102.7	103.2	103.3	103.3	103.1	102.7	102.6
Textile products	77.5	77.5	78.3	79.5	78.7	78.2	78.3	77.1	75.3	73.5	71.2	70.1	76.3
Clothing	83.9	84.2	84.8	86.8	87.2	89.1	90.1	90.0	89.7	89.4	87.3	86.7	87.9
Cotton goods	91.9	91.3	94.0	95.1	92.6	89.7	86.8	82.2	76.8	73.1	70.5	68.7	84.3
Knit goods	64.4	64.7	64.9	65.9	65.7	64.6	64.8	65.7	66.5	65.8	64.2	63.4	65.1
Silk and rayon	34.5	33.7	33.6	33.8	32.5	32.5	33.9	32.9	32.4	30.6	30.1	29.4	32.5
Woolen and worsted goods	91.9	93.1	92.6	93.5	93.3	93.2	94.4	93.9	92.4	90.1	85.1	83.5	91.1
Other textile products	66.2	65.9	66.5	68.8	68.9	67.5	69.3	71.1	70.0	69.0	69.0	68.5	68.4
Fuel and lighting materials	76.6	76.8	76.2	76.8	77.2	77.5	78.1	78.4	78.7	78.5	78.2	78.4	77.6
Anthracite	81.6	81.6	77.8	72.4	74.2	74.5	76.6	76.8	78.7	78.8	79.8	80.0	77.8
Bituminous coal	96.8	97.4	97.5	98.6	98.5	98.5	98.6	98.7	99.2	99.3	99.2	101.1	98.6
Coke	97.6	97.6	97.7	102.8	105.1	105.0	104.9	104.9	105.0	105.3	105.4	105.5	103.1
Electricity	81.0	80.8	77.8	77.1	78.8	79.5	80.0	79.4	80.5	81.0	83.1	(1)	(1)
Gas	82.2	80.7	79.8	80.7	83.0	84.2	84.0	82.6	84.0	83.6	83.1	(1)	(1)
Petroleum products	58.3	59.1	58.6	59.8	60.9	61.5	61.8	62.0	62.2	61.7	60.6	59.5	60.5
Metals and metal products	90.9	91.7	96.0	96.5	95.8	95.9	96.1	97.0	97.1	96.4	96.8	96.3	95.7
Agricultural implements	93.0	93.1	93.1	92.1	93.8	94.1	94.2	94.2	94.2	94.2	95.9	96.1	94.0
Iron and steel	91.7	92.0	97.5	99.6	99.6	99.7	99.8	99.9	99.8	99.7	99.3	99.0	98.2
Motor vehicles[2]	86.3	86.3	86.3	86.9	86.9	86.9	87.0	90.2	91.2	92.2	95.3	95.6	89.3
Nonferrous metals	84.8	89.4	101.1	97.0	91.7	91.9	92.7	93.3	92.6	85.5	78.5	75.1	89.6
Plumbing and heating	77.1	77.4	77.6	78.7	78.7	78.7	78.7	78.8	80.6	80.6	79.6	79.6	78.8
Building materials	91.3	93.3	95.9	96.7	97.2	96.9	96.7	96.3	96.2	95.4	93.7	92.5	95.2
Brick and tile	89.7	91.0	91.8	94.9	95.0	95.0	95.4	95.5	95.0	93.4	92.9	92.0	93.5
Cement	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.5
Lumber	93.0	99.0	102.1	103.0	103.0	102.2	101.3	99.5	99.0	97.3	94.8	93.8	99.0
Paint and paint materials	83.7	83.4	83.9	83.9	83.7	83.6	83.9	84.1	84.6	84.2	81.5	80.2	83.4
Plumbing and heating	77.1	77.4	77.6	78.7	78.7	78.7	78.7	78.8	80.6	80.6	79.6	79.6	78.8
Structural steel	104.7	104.7	112.9	114.9	114.9	114.9	114.9	114.9	114.9	114.9	114.9	114.9	113.2
Other building materials	93.9	95.0	98.9	99.9	101.3	101.1	101.0	101.0	100.8	100.2	98.7	96.9	99.1
Chemicals and drugs	87.7	87.8	87.5	86.9	84.5	83.6	83.9	82.2	81.4	81.2	80.2	79.5	83.9
Chemicals	96.4	95.6	95.3	94.2	91.1	90.1	89.9	87.0	85.7	85.3	84.2	83.5	89.9
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	79.0	83.0	83.0	82.9	79.2	78.0	78.2	78.2	78.3	78.3	76.8	75.1	79.1
Fertilizer materials	70.6	70.7	70.3	70.7	70.6	70.5	71.3	71.7	71.8	72.5	71.9	72.0	71.2
Mixed fertilizers	71.4	71.7	71.7	72.0	72.2	72.3	74.2	74.8	74.8	74.9	74.5	74.4	73.2
Housefurnishing goods	86.5	87.9	88.4	89.0	89.3	89.5	89.7	91.1	91.1	91.0	90.4	89.7	89.7
Furnishings	89.0	91.2	91.7	92.1	92.5	92.5	92.6	95.0	94.9	94.9	94.8	93.5	93.4
Furniture	84.0	84.5	85.0	85.8	86.1	86.6	86.8	87.1	87.1	87.1	86.0	85.9	85.9
Miscellaneous	76.2	77.3	79.5	81.1	80.5	79.4	79.0	77.3	77.0	76.2	75.4	75.0	77.8
Automobile tires and tubes	51.8	53.1	55.0	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	57.4	57.4	55.8
Cattle feed	135.4	129.4	135.0	146.8	139.9	116.9	116.5	82.9	81.2	83.6	83.3	81.7	110.5
Paper and pulp	84.8	87.5	90.2	93.9	94.6	95.0	94.2	94.1	93.4	92.4	90.4	89.8	91.7
Rubber, crude	44.3	44.3	50.9	49.3	44.6	41.0	39.6	38.2	38.4	33.6	30.6	31.2	40.5
Other miscellaneous	83.1	84.2	84.8	85.3	85.5	85.8	85.7	85.4	85.1	84.6	83.5	82.7	84.7
Raw materials	88.1	88.3	90.1	88.7	87.1	86.1	86.5	84.8	84.4	80.7	77.2	75.4	84.8
Semimanufactured articles	85.4	85.5	89.6	89.5	87.5	86.8	87.0	86.6	85.3	82.5	79.8	77.7	85.3
Finished products	84.9	85.4	86.4	87.4	87.5	87.7	88.8	89.0	89.1	88.1	86.7	85.3	87.2
All commodities other than farm products	84.6	85.0	86.3	86.9	86.7	86.8	87.5	87.6	87.6	86.4	84.8	83.5	86.2
All commodities other than farm products and foods	83.4	84.1	85.5	86.5	86.3	86.1	86.3	86.1	85.9	85.1	84.3	83.6	85.3

[1] Data not yet available.

[2] Preliminary revision

In table 7 the price trend since 1926 is shown for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, finished products, all commodities other than farm products, and all commodities other than farm products and foods.

The "All commodities other than farm products" group includes all commodities except those designated as farm products and the index for this group represents the movement in prices of nonagricultural commodities. All commodities with the exception of those designated as farm products and foods are included in the group "All commodities other than farm products and foods." The index for this group reflects the trend in prices of industrial commodities. The commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Finished products" are as follows:

Raw materials.—All farm products (67 quotations), bananas, cocoa beans, coffee (2 quotations), copra, pepper, hides and skins (7 quotations), raw silk (4 quotations), hemp, jute, sisal, coal (6 quotations), crude petroleum (3 quotations), iron ore (2 quotations), scrap steel, gravel, sand, crushed stone, crude sulphur, phosphate rock, nitrate of soda, tankage, crude rubber (3 quotations); total, 109.

Semimanufactured articles.—Oleo oil, raw sugar, vegetable oil (6 quotations), leather (7 quotations), print cloth (2 quotations), tire fabric (2 quotations), cotton yarn (5 quotations), rayon (4 quotations), silk yarn (6 quotations), worsted yarn (3 quotations), artificial leather (2 quotations), jute yarn (2 quotations), bar iron (2 quotations), steel bars (3 quotations), steel billets, malleable castings, pig iron (7 quotations), wire rods, skelp, steel strips, aluminum, antimony, ingot copper, pig lead, nickel, quicksilver, brass rods, copper rods, silver, pig tin, pig zinc, barytes, butyl acetate, carbon black, iron oxide black, prussian blue, ethyl acetate, chrome green, copal gum, chinawood oil, linseed oil, rosin, turpentine, whiting, yellow chrome, plaster, tar, pine oil, camphor, opium, wood pulp (4 quotations), paraffin wax; total, 93.

Finished products.—Butter (18 quotations), cheese (3 quotations), milk (3 quotations), cereal products (28 quotations), canned fruit (6 quotations), dried fruit (6 quotations), canned vegetables (7 quotations), meats (14 quotations), beverages (3 quotations), powdered cocoa, fish (6 quotations), glucose, grape jam, lard, molasses, oleomargarine, peanut butter, salt, tomato soup, cornstarch, granulated sugar, edible tallow, tea, vegetable oil (2 quotations), vinegar, shoes (21 quotations), other leather products (6 quotations), clothing (20 quotations), cotton goods (except print cloth, tire fabric, and yarn) (26 quotations), knit goods (9 quotations), woolen textiles (15 quotations), burlap, rope (3 quotations), thread (2 quotations), twine (3 quotations), coke (4 quotations), electricity, gas, fuel oil (2 quotations), gasoline (5 quotations), kerosene (2 quotations), agricultural implements (31 quotations), angle bars, augers, axes, reinforcing bars, steel barrels, boiler tubes, bolts (4 quotations), butts, sanitary cans, chisels, files, hammers, hatchets, knives, knobs, locks, nails, pipe (3 quotations), planes, plates, rails, rivets (2 quotations), saws (2 quotations), steel sheets (3 quotations), spikes, structural steel, terne-plate, tie plates, tin plate, vises, wire fence (4 quotations), wood screws, motor vehicles (7 quotations), babbitt metal, lead pipe, brass sheets, copper sheets, zinc sheets, solder, brass tubes, wire (2 quotations), plumbing and heating (8 quotations), brick and tile (12 quotations), cement, lath (2 quotations), lumber (16 quotations), shingles (2 quotations), prepared paint (6 quotations), paint materials (9 quotations), asphalt, building board (2 quotations), doors, frames (2 quotations), glass (4 quotations), lime (2 quotations), sewer pipe,

prepared roofing (4 quotations), slate roofing, window sash, acid (12 quotations), alcohol (3 quotations), aluminum sulphate, ammonia (2 quotations), anilin oil, arsenic, baking powder (2 quotations), benzene, bleaching powder, borax, calcium compounds (4 quotations), coal-tar colors (4 quotations), copperas, copper sulphate, creosote oil, formaldehyde, logwood extract, naphthalene, potash, quebracho extract, sal soda, salt cake, granulated salt, sodium compounds (5 quotations), tallow, toluene, caffeine, castor oil, chlorine, chloroform, cream of tartar, Epsom salts, glycerine, iodine, menthol, peroxide of hydrogen, phenol, potassium iodide, quinine sulphate, soda phosphate, strychnine, zince chloride, ammonia sulphate, ground bones, kainit, manure salts, muriate potash, sulphate potash, superphosphate, mixed fertilizers (6 quotations), housefurnishing goods (61 quotations), automobile tires and tubes (4 quotations), cattle feed (4 quotations), boxboard (3 quotations), paper (4 quotations), wooden barrels, batteries (2 quotations), caskets (2 quotations), cigar boxes, matches (2 quotations), mirrors, lubricating oil (4 quotations), pipe covering, rubber heels (2 quotations), rubber hose, shipping cases, soap (5 quotations), starch, tobacco products (5 quotations); total, 582.

TABLE 7.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Finished products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Finished products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1936—Continued.					
1927	96.5	94.3	95.0	94.6	94.0	July	79.8	75.2	81.6	80.3	79.5
1928	99.1	94.5	95.9	94.8	92.9	August	81.5	75.6	82.4	80.9	79.7
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	September	81.8	75.9	82.3	80.9	79.6
						October	82.1	76.2	82.0	80.9	80.1
1930	84.3	81.8	88.0	85.9	85.2	November	83.1	78.6	82.6	81.7	81.0
1931	65.6	69.0	77.0	74.6	75.0	December	85.6	82.3	83.8	83.1	82.2
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	1937:					
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	January	88.1	85.4	84.9	84.6	83.4
						February	88.3	85.5	85.4	85.0	84.1
1934	68.6	72.8	78.2	76.9	78.4	March	90.1	89.6	86.4	86.3	85.5
1935	77.1	73.6	82.2	80.2	77.9	April	88.7	89.5	87.4	86.9	86.5
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	May	87.1	87.5	87.5	86.7	86.3
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	June	86.1	86.8	87.7	86.8	86.1
1936:						July	86.5	87.0	88.8	87.5	86.3
January	78.1	74.8	82.4	80.9	78.8	August	84.8	86.6	89.0	87.6	86.1
February	79.1	74.6	82.2	80.7	79.0	September	84.4	85.3	89.1	87.6	85.9
March	77.4	74.4	81.3	80.2	78.9	October	80.7	82.5	88.1	86.4	85.1
April	77.0	74.5	81.6	80.1	78.9	November	77.2	79.8	86.7	84.8	84.3
May	75.8	74.1	80.5	79.2	78.8	December	75.4	77.7	85.3	83.5	83.6
June	77.6	73.9	80.7	79.4	78.8						

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for November and December 1937 and December of each of the past 7 years are presented in table 8.

TABLE 8.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	December 1937	November 1937	December 1936	December 1935	December 1934	December 1933	December 1932	December 1931	December 1930
All commodities	81.7	83.3	84.2	80.9	76.9	70.8	62.6	68.6	79.6
Farm products	72.8	75.7	88.5	78.3	72.0	55.5	44.1	55.7	75.2
Grains	71.5	69.2	109.0	76.6	91.5	60.4	31.7	47.0	64.0
Livestock and poultry	78.4	86.2	85.0	87.4	57.2	38.0	38.7	51.7	76.3
Other farm products	69.3	70.7	84.4	72.8	75.1	64.3	51.3	61.2	78.1
Foods	79.8	83.1	85.5	85.7	75.3	62.5	58.3	69.1	82.4
Dairy products	90.2	89.2	88.9	83.7	79.6	65.1	59.5	79.8	89.2
Cereal products	82.0	81.5	87.1	97.2	92.2	84.7	61.7	72.2	75.9
Fruits and vegetables	57.8	61.5	75.4	63.7	62.4	63.0	52.8	63.5	75.4
Meats	88.8	98.3	87.2	97.5	69.0	46.0	49.4	63.2	89.2
Other foods	71.5	73.6	84.0	77.5	74.3	63.4	66.1	67.2	77.0
Hides and leather products	97.7	101.4	99.7	95.4	85.1	89.2	69.6	79.8	91.4
Shoes	105.6	106.9	99.4	100.1	97.2	98.6	83.8	89.2	97.7
Hides and skins	85.5	94.6	110.4	96.5	67.4	74.9	41.7	48.8	69.4
Leather	86.9	92.7	92.6	87.6	71.8	80.1	59.2	78.6	91.5
Other leather products	102.7	103.1	96.3	87.1	85.7	87.6	81.9	99.7	104.8
Textile products	70.1	71.2	76.3	73.2	70.0	76.4	53.0	60.8	73.7
Clothing	86.7	87.3	83.1	81.0	78.4	87.9	62.5	70.8	83.5
Cotton goods	68.7	70.5	90.3	86.0	84.3	85.5	51.7	56.4	75.6
Knit goods	63.4	64.2	63.0	62.2	61.9	71.2	49.3	58.5	72.3
Silk and rayon	29.4	30.1	33.8	33.7	27.1	29.6	29.3	39.0	87.2
Woolen and worsted goods	83.5	85.1	90.5	81.0	74.0	84.3	54.2	63.9	73.9
Other textile products	68.5	69.0	65.3	68.1	68.6	75.9	66.6	71.3	77.8
Fuel and lighting materials	78.4	78.2	76.5	74.6	73.7	73.4	69.3	68.3	74.0
Anthracite	80.0	79.8	82.3	82.9	82.3	81.5	88.7	94.8	89.6
Bituminous coal	101.1	99.2	97.3	98.7	96.5	90.6	80.2	83.8	89.1
Coke	105.5	105.4	97.8	89.6	85.6	83.6	75.3	81.1	83.8
Electricity	[1]	83.1	82.7	84.9	93.1	94.6	104.1	104.1	100.7
Gas	[1]	83.1	83.1	84.5	89.3	92.2	96.5	98.2	95.4
Petroleum products	59.5	60.6	58.0	52.8	49.8	51.6	45.0	39.6	51.1
Metals and metal products	96.3	96.8	89.6	86.8	85.9	83.5	79.4	82.2	87.9
Agricultural implements	96.1	95.9	93.0	94.6	92.7	85.1	84.5	85.5	94.4
Iron and steel	99.0	99.3	90.9	86.9	85.6	83.6	78.8	81.0	86.6
Motor vehicles [1]	95.6	95.3	83.7	83.5	86.3	83.7	85.5	89.7	90.2
Nonferrous metals	75.1	78.5	78.6	70.6	67.5	66.6	48.3	53.8	71.7
Plumbing and heating	79.6	79.6	76.7	71.1	68.8	72.5	67.5	79.9	85.3
Building materials	92.5	93.7	89.5	85.5	85.1	85.6	70.8	75.7	84.8
Brick and tile	92.0	92.9	88.5	88.9	91.2	85.7	75.1	80.0	87.1
Cement	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.5	93.9	91.2	81.1	74.6	90.6
Lumber	93.8	94.8	89.6	81.5	81.2	88.0	56.5	65.8	78.2
Paint and paint materials	80.2	81.5	82.4	80.0	78.8	77.5	68.1	76.6	83.7
Plumbing and heating	79.6	79.6	76.7	71.1	68.8	72.5	67.5	79.9	85.3
Structural steel	114.9	114.9	101.7	92.0	92.0	86.8	81.7	81.7	81.7
Other building materials	96.9	98.7	92.6	90.0	89.8	88.6	80.1	81.5	89.3
Chemicals and drugs	79.5	80.2	85.3	80.6	77.8	73.7	72.3	76.1	85.6
Chemicals	83.5	84.2	93.3	87.7	82.2	79.2	79.7	80.8	89.9
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	75.1	76.8	77.4	74.7	73.4	59.0	54.7	61.0	65.7
Fertilizer materials	72.0	71.9	68.6	64.5	65.3	68.1	63.1	70.1	81.4
Mixed fertilizers	74.4	74.5	71.4	67.7	73.7	69.9	65.6	77.1	90.6
Housefurnishing goods	89.7	90.4	83.2	81.0	81.2	81.0	73.6	78.5	88.8
Furnishings	93.5	94.8	86.9	84.7	84.2	82.9	74.7	76.6	85.6
Furniture	85.9	86.0	79.4	77.1	78.2	79.3	72.7	80.6	92.5
Miscellaneous	75.0	75.4	74.5	67.5	71.0	65.7	63.4	66.8	73.5
Automobile tires and tubes	57.4	57.4	50.1	45.0	47.5	43.2	44.6	40.8	50.2
Cattle feed	81.7	83.3	130.7	70.8	123.1	60.3	37.1	53.9	78.2
Paper and pulp	89.8	90.4	82.9	79.2	81.5	82.5	73.0	80.8	84.0
Rubber, crude	31.2	30.6	41.9	27.2	26.4	18.0	6.8	9.5	18.6
Other miscellaneous	82.7	83.5	82.2	80.2	80.7	79.0	81.3	85.9	90.3
Raw materials	75.4	77.2	85.6	77.7	73.1	61.9	52.1	60.2	74.2
Semimanufactured articles	77.7	79.8	82.3	75.2	71.0	72.3	57.7	63.7	75.1
Finished products	85.3	86.7	83.8	83.1	79.5	74.8	68.4	73.3	82.8
All commodities other than farm products	83.5	84.8	83.1	81.3	77.8	74.0	66.5	71.3	80.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods	83.6	84.3	82.2	78.7	78.0	77.5	69.0	72.3	80.3

[1] Date not yet available.

Weekly Fluctuations

A decided downward tendency was evidenced in wholesale commodity prices throughout the 4 weeks of December.

The foods group registered the greatest decline—3.2—during the 4-week period November 27 to December 25. Hides and leather products dropped 1.8 percent; building materials, 1.3 percent; textile products, 0.9 percent; housefurnishing goods, 0.8 percent; farm products, 0.7 percent; chemicals and drugs, 0.5 percent; and miscellaneous commodities, 0.1 percent. The metals and metal products group advanced slightly from the last week of November to the last week of December and fuel and lighting materials remained steady.

Weekly price variations in the commodity groups during December are shown by the index numbers in table 9. The percentage changes from week to week are given in table 10.

TABLE 9.—*Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Commodity Groups, December and November 1937*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Dec. 25 1937	Dec. 18 1937	Dec. 11 1937	Dec. 4 1937	Nov. 27 1937	Nov. 20 1937	Nov. 13 1937	Nov. 6 1937
All commodities	81.2	81.5	81.9	82.0	82.0	82.9	83.2	83.8
Farm products	72.9	73.2	73.4	73.9	73.4	75.9	77.8	77.7
Foods	78.9	79.7	80.7	80.7	81.5	83.2	83.6	84.3
Hides and leather products	98.4	98.2	98.3	99.8	100.2	101.8	103.0	104.2
Textile products	69.4	69.5	69.9	69.8	70.0	70.5	71.0	71.6
Fuel and lighting materials	78.6	78.6	78.6	78.6	78.6	78.6	79.0	78.9
Metals and metal products	96.2	96.4	96.2	96.3	96.1	96.6	94.6	95.1
Building materials	92.5	92.8	93.0	93.0	93.7	93.8	94.0	94.4
Chemicals and drugs	79.2	79.1	78.9	79.4	79.6	79.8	80.0	80.1
Housefurnishing goods	91.4	92.1	92.1	92.1	92.1	92.1	92.1	92.2
Miscellaneous	74.9	74.8	74.8	75.1	75.0	75.4	75.0	75.5
Raw materials	75.3	75.2	75.3	75.7	75.4	77.0	78.2	78.6
Semimanufactured articles	77.4	77.6	78.1	78.4	78.9	79.7	80.0	81.1
Finished products	85.0	85.5	85.9	85.9	86.1	86.6	86.5	87.0
All commodities other than farm products	83.1	83.4	83.8	83.8	84.0	84.5	84.5	85.1
All commodities other than farm products and foods	83.6	83.7	83.7	83.9	83.9	84.2	84.0	84.3

TABLE 10.—*Weekly Changes (Percent) During December 1937, by Groups of Commodities*

Commodity group	Percentage change from—				
	Nov. 27 to Dec. 25	Dec. 18 to Dec. 25	Dec. 11 to Dec. 18	Dec. 4 to Dec. 11	Nov. 27 to Dec. 4
All commodities	−1.0	−0.4	−0.5	−0.1	0.0
Farm products	−.7	−.4	−.3	−.7	+.7
Foods	−3.2	−1.0	−1.2	0	−1.0
Hides and leather products	−1.8	+.2	−.1	−1.5	−.4
Textiles	−.9	−.1	−.6	+.1	−.3
Fuel and lighting materials	0	0	0	0	0
Metals and metal products	+.1	−.2	+.2	−.1	+.2
Building materials	−1.3	−.3	−.2	0	−.7
Chemicals and drugs	−.5	+.1	+.3	−.6	−.3
Housefurnishing goods	−.8	−.8	0	0	0
Miscellaneous	−.1	+.1	0	−.4	+.1
Raw materials	−.1	+.1	−.1	−.5	+.4
Semimanufactured articles	−1.9	−.3	−.6	−.4	−.6
Finished products	−1.3	−.6	−.5	0	−.2
All commodities other than farm products	−1.1	−.4	−.5	0	−.2
All commodities other than farm products and foods	−.4	−.1	0	−.2	0

Monthly Average Wholesale Prices and Index Numbers of Individual Commodities

The table showing monthly average wholesale prices and index numbers of individual commodities formerly appearing in the Wholesale Price separate is now published semiannually instead of monthly. The December 1937 issue of the pamphlet showed the average for the year 1937 and information for the last 6 months of 1937. The monthly figures will be furnished upon request.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

JANUARY 1938

Agriculture

Selected references on practices and use of labor on farms—Part I. Compiled by William A. Newman and Loring K. Macy. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, 1937. 284 pp. (National Research Project, Studies of Changing Techniques and Employment in Agriculture, Report No. A–3, Part I.)

The references are grouped under five main heads—crops (grains, cotton, tobacco, etc.), fruits and vegetables, livestock, implements and operations, and seasonal distribution of labor. The material is also classified by State under the various subheadings.

Proceedings of third annual convention of Southern Tenant Farmers' Union, Muskogee, Okla., January 14–17, 1937. Memphis, Tenn., Southern Tenant Farmers' Union, 1937. 84 pp.

Although concerned mainly with living and working conditions of tenant farmers and farm laborers, the proceedings also included discussion of consumers' cooperation and an account of the working of the Delta Cooperative Farm, and the cooperative store run in connection therewith, at Hillhouse, Miss.

Civil Service

Personnel administration in the Federal Government. By Lewis Meriam. Washington, Brookings Institution, Institute for Government Research, 1937. 62 pp. (Pamphlet No. 19.)

A critical comparison of existing personnel organization and techniques in the Federal service and the proposed changes in the present system, which contemplate the abolition of the United States Civil Service Commission and the creation of a one-man personnel agency. The recommendations of the author center around measures to strengthen the present system, chiefly through greater appropriations for the Civil Service Commission and an expansion of personnel administrative units within the various governmental divisions.

The British civil service. By Herman Finer. London, Fabian Society and George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1937. 254 pp.

Discusses the historical development, general organization, practices and policies in recruiting, remuneration, promotion and discipline, and the "spirit and operation," of the civil-service system of Great Britain. An appendix presents the salary scales and provisions for annual leave applying to the general clerical and the executive classifications.

Consumer Problems

Analysis of condition, quality, and size requirements of United States and State standards for fresh fruits and vegetables, and legal standards for dairy products. Washington, U. S. Consumers' Project, 1937. 18 pp., folders.

Report of Virginia State Planning Board: Vol. XI, Retail trade. [Richmond?], 1937. Various paging, maps, charts; mimeographed.

An article on social effects of changes in buying habits in Virginia, based on this report, is published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Cooperative Movement

Co-ops: How far can they go? Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Extension Service and Agricultural Adjustment Administration, 1937. 13 pp.
Distinguishes among the various types of cooperative associations and shows the distinction between cooperatives and other businesses, discusses relations between producers' and consumers' cooperatives, and quotes opinions from various sources as to how far cooperative effort is practicable.

Cooperative societies [Great Britain]—statistical summaries, 1926–36. London, Registry of Friendly Societies, 1937. 3 pp.

Sixty-ninth annual cooperative congress [of Cooperative Union, Ltd.], held in Bath, England, May 17–19, 1937. Manchester, Cooperative Union, Ltd., Holyoake House, Hanover Street, 1937. 764 pp.

Economic and Social Problems

Books and articles on the economic history of Germany. Compiled by Walther Vogel. (In Economic History Review, London, November 1937, pp. 116–124.)
Practically all the references are to material in the German language, published in Germany.

Books and articles on the economic history of Great Britain and Ireland. Compiled by J. de L. Mann. (In Economic History Review, London, November 1937, pp. 111–115.)

How much compensation? A problem of transfer from private to public enterprise. By Ernest Davies. London, Victor Gollancz, Ltd., and New Fabian Research Bureau, 1937. 59 pp. (N. F. R. B. No. 33.)
The British Labor Party has advocated the policy of public purchase of key industries and their operation by public corporations. The author of this booklet views compensation to the present owners as a necessary transitional stage and discusses the principles of compensation, the various possible methods, and the detailed problems of the transitional period. There is some discussion of past experience in connection with public corporations, such as the London Passenger Transport Board.

Money. By Emile Burns. London, Victor Gollancz, Ltd., 1937. 94 pp. (New People's Library, Vol. I.)
A simplified analysis of the nature of money and its relations to trade, production, and income including wages.

The national capital, and other statistical studies. By Sir Josiah Stamp. London, P. S. King & Son, Ltd., 1937. 299 pp., charts.
These collected papers contain both factual data and studies of statistical method relating to several important topics, which include estimates of Great Britain's capital wealth, profits in Great Britain and the United States, and methods of estimating national income in various countries.

The world's wealth, its use and abuse. By Broadus Mitchell. New York, Henry Holt & Co., 1937. 772 pp.
A considerable part of the volume is devoted to subjects directly concerned with labor. These include wages, wage theories, trade unionism, labor under the "New Deal," and proposed systems of social reorganization. Other topics usually discussed in general works on economics are also included.

Prolonged unemployment, technical progress and the conquest of new markets. By Fritz Sternberg. (In International Labor Review, International Labor Office, Geneva, October 1937, pp. 446–485; charts.)
During the long period of relatively slow technological progress before the World War, there was a comparatively small amount of unemployment and, at the same time, a rise in real wages. These conditions are attributed by the author mainly to the rapid expansion of the markets and investments of industrialized areas in other regions and the attendant high rates of profit for capital investments. The author states that, in the foreseeable future, the severe restriction of opportunity for expanding external markets and investments is likely to be combined with continued technological progress due to competitive pressure. He holds also that the checking of unemployment and the sharing by workers in the benefits of technological progress are no longer automatic adjustments incidental to external expansion and must be dependent increasingly on labor organization and general planning.

When clients organize. By Helen Seymour. Chicago, American Public Welfare Association, 850 East 58th Street, 1937. 38 pp.; bibliography.

Makes available what the issuing office believes to be the first successful attempt at a general account and interpretation of pressure organizations of unemployed and destitute persons as a factor in the administration of relief. According to a foreword to the report, the self-organization of the jobless "helped to prevent them from being used by the extreme right or the extreme left as hired storm troopers of reaction or revolution."

Education and Guidance

A review of educational legislation, 1935 and 1936. By Ward W. Keesecker. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1937. 39 pp. (Bulletin, 1937, No. 2, advance pages; chapter VIII of volume I of biennial survey of education in United States, 1934–36.)

Among the enactments reviewed are those containing provisions concerning vocational education; training, salaries, employment, tenure, and retirement of teachers; and the higher education of Negroes.

Educational experiments in social settlements. By Gaynell Hawkins. New York, American Association for Adult Education, 1937. xvi, 145 pp.

Endeavors to show through a study of certain social settlements "the extent to which they are actual and potential agencies for adult education."

The Federal adult education project for the deaf. By William J. Marra. (In American Annals of the Deaf, Washington, D. C., November 1937, pp. 406–410.)

A brief account of a successful school for the adult deaf in Kansas City, Mo., which since the establishment of the project in 1934 up to the time the report was prepared had had a total class attendance of 2,609.

Vocational services under Jewish auspices. New York, Council of Jewish Federations and Welfare Funds, 71 West 47th Street, 1937. 35 pp.; mimeographed. (Section of 1936 year book of Jewish social work.)

Reports on the vocational-guidance and placement activities of two types of Jewish agencies—those established solely for these activities, and those offering such services through a separately organized department.

Education in 1936—being report of Board of Education, and statistics of public education for England and Wales. London, Board of Education, 1937. 199 pp. (Cmd. 5564.)

A chapter on technical and commercial education in England contains information on the release of students by employers during working hours for attendance on courses of instruction, provision for unemployed boys and girls, and classes for unemployed adults. In other parts of the report more detailed information is given on adult education.

Education in Japan under Department of Education—administration and work. Tokyo, Department of Education, 1937. 43 pp., charts.

Includes information on pensions and allowances for elementary school teachers, and on salaries of principals and teachers in secondary schools, 1926 to 1935.

Employment and Unemployment

Employment resulting from P. W. A. construction, 1933–37. By Herman B. Byer. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 11 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 661, reprint from January 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

Unemployment in the learned professions: An international study of occupational and educational planning. By Walter M. Kotschnig. London, Oxford University Press, 1937. 347 pp.

Parts I and II deal with increases and shifts in student enrollments and their cause and effect in regard to the moot question of over-crowded professions. In Part III the various aspects of controlling student enrollments are portrayed and presented in their relation to the market of intellectual labor. The final section deals with the need for occupational and educational planning. Although primarily a treatise on unemployment in the professions throughout the world, the analysis also treats of several other aspects of present conditions which affect professional workers.

The trend of employment and unemployment in the Saorstát in the years 1935 and 1936. Dublin, Department of Industry and Commerce, 1937. 29 pp.

Forestry

Skogsbygdens arbets- och levnadsvillkor: Del II, Önskemål och förslag (enligt avgivna utlåtanden). Stockholm, Socialstyrelsen, 1937. 227 pp.

Report on working and living conditions of forestry workers in Sweden, including wages, cost of living, and housing, together with proposals for improving these conditions and for better regulation of the lumber trade in general.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

New health frontiers: Proceedings of fifteenth annual conference of the Milbank Memorial Fund, April 29 and 30, 1937. New York, Milbank Memorial Fund, 1937. 107 pp.

The discussions covered the subjects of hygienic aspects of housing, health problems of adult life, and nutrition and public health.

Public welfare and medical care. Addresses delivered at meeting of American Public Welfare Association, Indianapolis, Ind., May 27, 1937. Chicago, American Public Welfare Association, 850 East Fifty-eighth Street, 1937. Various paging.

Socialized medicine in the Soviet Union. By Henry E. Sigerist, M. D. New York, W. W. Norton, Inc., 1937. 378 pp., illus.

An account of the development of the medical system in the Soviet Union with special reference to socialist and communist theories.

Environment and employee efficiency. New York, American Management Association, 330 West 42d Street, 1937. 28 pp., illus. (Office Management Series, No. 81.)

Papers presented at a conference on office management, covering noise, air conditioning, and lighting, in offices.

Toxicology. By William D. McNally, M. D. Chicago, Industrial Medicine, 1937. 1022 pp.

Contains the results of recent research in the field of toxicology, as well as the fundamental facts and basic principles, and is designed to serve the medical and legal professions. Considerable space is given to carbon-monoxide, lead, and arsenic, as these causes of poisoning are most frequently encountered in court and industrial work.

Housing

Third annual report of Federal Housing Administration, for year ending December 31, 1936. Washington, 1937. 65 pp.

Statistics of operation show the organizations financing mortgage loans, types of dwellings upon which money is loaned, and ratio of property valuation to borrower's income.

The housing market. Washington, National Housing Committee, 1937. 32 pp., maps, charts.

Basing its conclusions on existing statistics of income, dwellings built, rents, and tenancy, the committee presents a program for future residential building.

Revival of the building industry. By Bryant Putney. Washington, 1937. 13 pp. (Editorial Research Reports, Vol. 2, 1937, No. 20.)

Cites reasons for the failure of housing construction to meet the country's needs, and discusses Federal efforts to stimulate building.

Three million houses. By Sir Charles Morgan-Webb. New York, Committee for the Nation, 205 East 42d Street, 1937. 197 pp., illus.

A description of the post-war housing program in Great Britain.

Immigration

Ukrainians in the United States. By Wasyl Halich. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1937. 174 pp., maps, illus.; bibliography.

Discusses the causes of emigration of Ukrainians to this country, the periods in which such emigration took place, the numerical importance of these immigrants in the United States, and their distribution, occupations, professions, businesses, and social institutions.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

Fatal accidents in the United States, 1935. Washington, U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1937. (Vital Statistics, Special Reports, Vol. 3, No. 38, pp. 181–212.)

Presents distribution of accidental deaths for the United States, individual States, cities of 100,000 or more, and age groups, by cause and type of accident.

Kansas accidental deaths, 1936. Topeka, Kansas State Board of Health, 1937. 17 pp., charts.

The study shows that 1 in every 12 deaths was the result of an accident, and that 1 in every 7 accidental deaths was occupational. The number of occupational deaths is listed as 257, of which 109 were due to accidents on farms. Total occupational deaths, however, would presumably include a number of the 588 additional deaths from the 493 motor-vehicle accidents reported, as 150 commercial vehicles were involved.

1936 annual statistical report issued by Industrial Commission of Ohio: A statistical study of all accident and occupational disease claims filed with Industrial Commission of Ohio during calendar year 1936, with a summary of the years 1927–36, inclusive. Columbus, Industrial Commission, 1937. 27 pp.

A total of 203,956 claims were filed, covering 1,066 fatalities, 7 permanent total disabilities, 1,873 permanent partial disabilities, and 35,076 temporary disabilities of more than 7 days' duration, 22,609 of 7 days' duration or less, and 143,325 involving no time loss. Occupational disease was reported as the cause in 1,376 cases, less than 0.7 percent of the total claims.

Coal-mine explosions in Ohio, 1874–1936. By C. W. Owings. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1937. 37 pp.; mimeographed. (Information Circular 6956.)

Gives reports on 163 explosions or ignitions known to have occurred in the State during the 63-year period covered, resulting in the death of 190 and injury to at least 265 persons. The various causes of these accidents are considered and recommendations as to preventive measures are summarized.

Fifth report of Department of Labor and Industries, Washington, covering period of 1932–36, inclusive. Olympia, 1937. 312 pp.

Devoted almost entirely to detailed statistical tabulations covering the experience of the accident and medical-aid funds under the compulsory and exclusive workmen's compensation act of the State. Accident frequency rates per 1,000,000 man-hours worked are shown for reported fatal injuries as 0.766 in 1933, 0.760 in 1934, 0.825 in 1935, and 0.821 in 1936, and for compensable nonfatal injuries as 47.6 in 1933, 48.2 in 1934, 49.1 in 1935, and 50.4 in 1936.

Twentieth annual report of Workmen's Compensation Board, British Columbia, for the year ended December 31, 1936. Victoria, 1937. 24 pp.

A total of 29,667 claims were filed with the Board during the year as against 26,280 in 1935, an increase of 13 percent, which practically corresponds with the increase in the number of workers. Awards made in the 13,547 cases closed in 1936 amounted to $2,332,727. The administrative cost of the accident fund was 3.01 percent of the receipts collected from employers, leaving 96.99 percent for providing compensation to injured workers and their dependents.

Beretning fra Direktoratet for Ulykkesforsikringen for aaret 1935. København, Denmark, 1937. 117 pp. (Særtryk af Socialt Tidsskrift, September 1937.)

Contains a summary of the activities in 1935 of the Danish Directorate of Accident Insurance and the Accident Insurance Council, under the compulsory insurance act of 1933; important decisions; and statistical tables covering 1,984 fatal and 73,670 nonfatal injuries, 1928–33, by industries.

Printed in Danish, with summary of statistics and industry classification in French.

Beretning om arbejds- og fabriktilsynets virksomhed i aaret 1936. København, Denmark, Direktoratet for Arbejds- og Fabriktilsynet, 1937. 150 pp., diagrams, illus. (Særtryk af Socialt Tidsskrift, Juli-August 1937.)

Annual report on activities of Factory Inspectorate of Denmark, covering, separately, factories, elevators, boilers, and bakeries. Includes recommendations for accident prevention, a summary of the results of an investigation of hygienic conditions and occupational diseases, and, in an appendix, a detailed analysis of the 1935 accident data.

Printed in Danish with summary in French.

Työssä sattuneet tapaturmat vuonna 1934. Helsinki, Finland, Sosiaaliministeriö, Sosiaalinen Tutkimustoimisto, 1937. 61 pp.

Annual report on industrial accidents in Finland, giving an analysis of the experience for 1934, accompanied by detailed tabulations for insured workers and for government employees. Distribution by industry is shown for man-hour exposure, pay rolls, insurance premiums, compensation payments, accidents, time loss, and causes, covering 70,279 injuries to insured workers and 5,535 to government employees. Distribution of closed cases of insured workers is shown by age, degree of disability, cause, industry group, and location of injury.

Printed in Finnish and Swedish, with nomenclature, table of contents, and general remarks in French.

Statistics of compensation and proceedings under Workmen's Compensation Acts and Employers' Liability Act, 1880, in Great Britain during the year 1935. London, Home Office, 1937. 32 pp. (Cmd. 5557.)

Reports were received, from employers and insurers, of 2,640 fatal and 422,699 nonfatal injuries. These included 17 fatal and 19,081 disabling cases of industrial disease. Compensation awards totaled £766,012 for fatal and £5,442,478 for nonfatal injuries. The aggregate average number of workers covered by the acts was reported as 7,231,870.

Proceedings of Eighth All-Ohio Safety Congress, Columbus, April 20–22, 1937. Columbus, Industrial Commission of Ohio, Division of Safety and Hygiene, 1937. 551 pp.

Papers presented and discussions on industrial safety at the general and sectional sessions, attended by more than 1,500 registered delegates and visitors.

List of respiratory protective devices approved by U. S. Bureau of Mines. By H. H. Schrenk. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1937. 6 pp.; mimeographed. (Information Circular 6952.)

Supersedes Information Circular 6918 and lists approvals as of April 10, 1937.

Some results of first-aid training of all the employees of a mine or plant. By J. J. Forbes. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1937. 13 pp.; mimeographed. (Information Circular 6957.)

What's wrong with mine safety programs? By D. Harrington. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1937. 9 pp.; mimeographed. (Information Circular 6958.)

Emphasizes the responsibility of owners or operators and the necessity for their active interest in accident prevention.

Safety standards for motion-picture-machine operators. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 17 pp. (Serial No. R. 647, reprint from January 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

Hygiene y seguridad del trabajo. By Mariano R. Tissembaum. Santa Fe, Argentina, Instituto Social de la Universidad Nacional del Litoral, 1936. 90 pp., illus. (Temas Obreros, No. 5.)

Safety and health standards agreed upon by the International Labor Organization; and legislative provisions in Argentina pertaining to the safety and health of workers in oil fields, mines, motorized agriculture, and industrial and commercial establishments; seats for workers; work of women and minors; home work; and work which is especially dangerous or unhealthful.

Industrial Relations

Collective bargaining for today and tomorrow—approach and method. Edited by Henry C. Metcalf. New York, Harper & Bros., 1937. 182 pp.

Transcript of discussions presented at a series of round-table conferences conducted by the Bureau of Personnel Administration (New York), by economists, Government officials, trade-unionists, industrialists, and authorities on personnel administration, dealing with various phases of employer-employee relations that are presented as evolving through legislation, Government intercession, and changing industrial and social conditions. A bibliography of selected references lists many of the most recent publications on subjects related to the conference discussions.

Regulation of contracts of employment of indigenous workers. Geneva, International Labor Office (American Branch, 734 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.), 1937. 239 pp. (Second item on agenda of International Labor Conference, 24th session, Geneva, 1938; report II.)

The general nature and scope of the question and the situation in the principal territories concerned are examined, and the following problems of regulation are discussed: The requirement that contracts be in writing, their contents, and administrative supervision of their conclusion; application of the requirements to women, young persons, and children; medical examination of workers; length of contract period; transfer of workers under contract; termination of contracts; repatriation of workers after contract termination; reengagement contracts; and penal sanctions.

Compulsory arbitration of labor disputes. (In Congressional Digest, Washington, December 1937, pp. 289–320.)

Factual material and pro and con discussions.

The legality of "peaceful coercion" in labor disputes. By Bernard Eskin. (In University of Pennsylvania Law Review and American Law Register, Philadelphia, March 1937, pp. 456–483.)

Brief analysis of legal theories regarding group action growing out of labor controversies, as indicated by court decisions.

Municipal and county labor boards. (In The Commonwealth, official journal of Commonwealth Club of California, San Francisco, December 28, 1937, part 2, pp. 142–175.)

Includes a brief report on the extent to which local governments (city and county) are in fact involved in extensive industrial disputes in their respective localities; a review of the organization and functioning of local machinery, where such exists, for interceding in labor disputes; and a pro and con discussion of the desirability of municipal and county labor boards patterned after and acting in conjunction with State and national labor relations boards. The appendix presents the text of the ordinance creating the Toledo (Ohio) Industrial Peace Board, with comments upon the achievements of that agency, by the board itself and by organized employers and employees; and a similar treatment of the Newark (N. J.) Municipal Labor Board.

The relative status of the sit-down strike in the development of labor law. By R. J. Howard. (In Virginia Law Review, Charlottesville, May 1937, pp. 799–815.)

Sit-down strikes—a new problem for government. (In Illinois Law Review, Chicago, March 1937, pp. 942–959.)

How to handle grievances. By Glenn Gardiner. New York, Elliott Service Co., 219 East 44th Street, 1937. vii, 52 pp.

A working manual for foremen and others in supervisory positions, who deal with employees' grievances.

El ABC de las huelgas. By Mario Pavon Flores. Mexico, D. F., Editorial "Masas," 1937. 196 pp.

This volume, by a Mexican professor of industrial law who has been active in the interests of the Mexican workers, covers the origin and growth of the strike movement, kinds of strikes, general principles and practices followed, and ultimate objectives of strikes. With special reference to Mexico, the author discusses the right to strike, settlement of labor conflicts, legal forms to be used in conducting strikes, court decisions in connection with strikes and collective labor agreements, strike regulations in the statutes of the Confederation of Mexican Workers, and the attitude of the Mexican Government toward strikes.

Labor Organization

Wharton Assembly addresses, 1937. Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania Press, 1937. 77 pp.

The five addresses reproduced in this compilation were given before the student body of the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce of the University of Pennsylvania during the academic year 1936–37. Three of them deal with the Committee for Industrial Organization, from different viewpoints. George M. Harrison, a vice president of the American Federation of Labor, discussed the issues involved in the cleavage in the American labor movement; George Sokolsky, journalist, spoke on C. I. O. tactics, particularly the sit-down strike, in their relation to established legal concepts; and Philip Murray, chairman of the Steel Workers' Organizing Committee, outlined the objectives of the C. I. O. as exemplified in the organizing and collective-bargaining movements in the steel industry.

The other addresses were: "Problems Confronting Your American Democracy," by Sir Wilmott Lewis, Washington correspondent of the London Times; and "The Debate Over the Constitution," by Henry Wolf Bikle, general counsel of the Pennsylvania Railroad Co.

The evolution of the German Labor Front. By Taylor Cole. (In Political Science Quarterly, New York, December 1937, pp. 532–558.)
Covers developments up to August 1936.

A pocket history of the British workers to 1919. By Raymond Postgate. (In Fact, London, August 1937, pp. 7–93.)
Condensed historical review of workers' movements in Great Britain, from the beginning of craft organization at the close of the eighteenth century to 1919, including trade unionism, chartism, the reformist movements, syndicalism, and socialism.

Minimum Wage

Report of the Massachusetts Minimum Wage Commission for year ended November 30, 1936. Boston, 1937. 18 pp.
Review of the year's activities of the commission, during which period it functioned as part of the State department of health. The report covers inspection and enforcement activities and the decisions of three new wage boards and the directory orders based thereon.

Mining Industry

Forty-fifth annual report of State Mining Department of Alabama—coal mines, 1936. Birmingham, 1937. 95 pp., illus.
Data on accidents, employment, equipment, operating conditions, and production, with a directory of mines in the State.

Annual report of coal mines, Washington, for year ending December 31, 1936. Olympia, Department of Labor and Industries, 1937. 18 pp.
Covers accidents, employment, equipment, development, and production.

Annual report of Division of Mines and Mining, Indiana, for fiscal year ended June 30, 1936. [Indianapolis, 1937.] 14 pp. (Reprinted from 1936 yearbook.)
Data on accidents, employment, wages, and production, with a directory of mines in the State.

Negro in Industry

Bibliography on Negro labor. Compiled in office of Lawrence A. Oxley. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 34 pp.; mimeographed.

Negro year book: An annual encyclopedia of the Negro, 1937–38. Edited by Monroe N. Work. Tuskegee Institute, Ala., Negro Year Book Publishing Co., 1937. 575 pp. (9th ed.)
Part 1 of this handbook contains information on the achievements of Negroes in the United States; their interests in relation to national recovery, agriculture, business, government, education, and religion; the problems of race relations, crime, lynching; statistics of population, occupations, and mortality; historical data concerning slavery and Negro soldiers in United States wars. Other parts of the volume deal with the Negro in Latin America, Europe, and Africa, and the Negro in poetry and the fine arts. A bibliography is furnished, as well as a directory of Negro newspapers, national organizations, and social-service centers.

Occupational characteristics of white-collar and skilled Negro workers of Atlanta, Georgia. Atlanta, Works Progress Administration of Georgia, 1937. 110 pp., charts, bibliography; mimeographed.
Presents data on social background, occupational shifts and trends, and relationships of the workers to social agencies.

Personnel Management

Office personnel practices. New York, American Management Association, 330 West 42d Street, 1937. 40 pp. (Office Management Series No. 79.)

Significant developments in office management. New York, American Management Association, 330 West 42d Street, 1937. 39 pp. (Office Management Series No. 78.)

Planning

National and regional planning. Joint congress of International Federation for Housing and Town Planning and International Housing Association, Paris 1937. London, International Federation for Housing and Town Planning, 25 Bedford Row, W. C. 1, 1937. 110 pp., maps.

Short statements, in English, French, or German, on national and regional planning in a number of foreign countries. Each statement has been summarized in the other two languages.

Prices

Revised method of calculation of the wholesale price index of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. By Jesse M. Cutts and Samuel J. Dennis. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 12 pp. (Serial No. R. 666, reprint from Journal of American Statistical Association, December 1937.)

Some problems involved in establishing milk prices. By E. W. Gaumnitz and O. M. Reed. Washington, U. S. Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Division of Marketing and Marketing Agreements, 1937. 227 pp., charts.

Statystyka cen, 1936. Warsaw, Główny Urząd Statystyczny, 1937. 146 pp.

Statistics of prices in Poland in 1936, tabulated by provinces and districts. Printed in Polish, with table of contents, introduction, and some table heads in French.

Prison Labor

The prison labor problem in California. Washington, U. S. Prison Industries Reorganization Administration, 1937. 84 pp., charts.; mimeographed.

While commending the good features of the California penal system, the report calls attention to the serious overcrowding in two of the State's institutions and the need for institutional diversification. The desirability of expansion of industrial production in the prisons, in order to keep the inmates busy, is also emphasized and new industries suggested.

Profit Sharing

Profit-sharing and other supplementary-compensation plans covering wage earners. By F. Beatrice Brower. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 247 Park Avenue, 1937. 22 pp. (Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 2.)

Reviewed in this issue.

Railroads

Government ownership and operation of railways for the United States. By Lewis C. Sorrell. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937. 330 pp., charts; bibliography.

The author is professional adviser to the Transportation Conference and the Railway Business Association. The book is essentially an argument against public ownership and operation of railways. An eight-page section is devoted to "The Railway Labor Interest."

Railways of thirty nations: Government versus private ownership. By P. Harvey Middleton. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937. 328 pp., illus.; bibliography.

Sponsored by the Railway Business Association. The author attempts to show that public ownership of railways in the United States is undesirable.

Relief Measures and Statistics

Annual report of Director of Emergency Conservation Work, fiscal year ending June 30, 1937. Washington, 1937. 49 pp., folders.

Reviews the various activities of the Civilian Conservation Corps for the year covered, and gives an account of the experience of a typical enrollee.

Aid to dependent children in their own homes—a study of the causes of dependency. Olympia, Wash., State Department of Social Security, 1937. 26 pp.; mimeographed. (Monograph No. 26.)

In order to determine the causes of dependency, an investigation was made of the condition of 5,467 Washington families receiving direct aid for dependent children at certain specified periods. The report includes data on occupations of living fathers, major causes of dependency as revealed by the study, and education of living mothers.

Report on old-age assistance in New Hampshire, February 1, 1936, to December 31, 1936. Concord, State Board of Welfare and Relief, 1937. 63 pp.

Offentlig forsorg og aldersrente i regnskabsaaret, 1934–35. Copenhagen, Danmarks Statistiske Departement, 1937. 116 pp.

Statistics of operation of the old-age pension system and other forms of public assistance in Denmark, 1934–35.

Report of the Minister of Public Welfare, Province of Ontario, for fiscal year 1935–1936. Toronto, 1937. 109 pp.

The subjects dealt with include old-age pensions, mothers' allowances, children's aid, industrial schools, and unemployment relief.

Textile Industry

The world textile industry—economic and social problems. Geneva, International Labor Office (American branch, 734 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.), 1937. In 2 volumes, 354 and 288 pp. (Studies and Reports, Series B, No. 27.)

Reprint, with certain alterations and additions, of the report originally prepared and distributed in proof as a basis for discussion at the Tripartite Technica Conference on the Textile Industry held in Washington, D. C., in April 1937.

First annual report of the Spindles Board [Great Britain]. London, Board of Trade, 1937. 20 pp. (Cmd. 5579.)

Covers total spindle capacity in Great Britain and the acquisition and disposal of unused mills and machinery under the Cotton Spinning Industry Act of 1936, which called for the purchase and scrapping of redundant and idle spinning mills and machinery through a special Government agency created for the purpose.

Unemployment Insurance and Relief

The administration of unemployment compensation benefits in Wisconsin, July 1, 1936, to June 30, 1937. By Walter Matscheck and R. C. Atkinson. Chicago, Public Administration Service, 850 East 58th Street, 1937. 92 pp. (Publication No. 58.)

This report on the first year's experience under the Wisconsin unemployment-compensation law contains a summary of the law, an account of the administrative organization and personnel and procedures in filing and registering claims, a discussion of the time factors in the payment of claims, and conclusions from the Wisconsin experience. The appendix contains copies of the various forms and reports used by employers and employees.

The Unemployment Insurance Statutory Committee [Great Britain]. By Sir William Beveridge. London, London School of Economics and Political Science, 1937. 55 pp. (Politica Pamphlet No. 1.)

Reviews the work of the Committee since its establishment in 1934.

Les remèdes contre le chômage en Europe. Louvain, Belgium, Union Internationale d'Études Sociales de Malines, 1936. 120 pp.

A collection of papers on the remedies for unemployment which have been adopted in Austria, Belgium, France, Great Britain, and Italy.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Earnings and hours in bituminous-coal mining, 1936. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 11 pp. (Serial No. R. 652, reprint from November 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Löhne und ernährungskosten in Deutschland, 1820 bis 1937. By Jürgen Kuczynski. Liepājā, Latvia, Gottl. D. Meyer, 1937. 45 pp.

Statistical report on money wages and cost of food in Germany from 1820 to 1937.

The forty hour week—a case for collective action. By Michael Stewart. London, Victor Gollancz, Ltd., and New Fabian Research Bureau, 1937. 35 pp. (N. F. R. B. No. 34.)

A summary of arguments for further reductions in working hours. The pamphlet also contains a brief historical account of reductions in hours; discussions of specific problems, such as the effect of shorter hours on overhead cost and shifts; and an examination of the possibility of action by a single country without corresponding reductions of hours in other countries.

Women in Industry

Women's hours and wages in District of Columbia in 1937. By Ethel L. Best and Arthur T. Sutherland. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1937. 44 pp. (Bulletin No. 153.)

Data from an advance summary of this study were published in the September 1937 Monthly Labor Review.

Youth Problems

How fare American youth? A report to the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education. By Homer P. Rainey and others. New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1937. 186 pp., charts.

In this review of the various angles of the youth problem the following are among the subjects considered: Adult education, arts and crafts, vocational education, occupational preferences, vocational adjustment, youth surveys, employment and unemployment, wages, Negro youth, and National Youth Administration activities.

Surveys of youth—finding the facts. By D. L. Harley. Washington, American Council on Education, 1937. 106 pp. (American Council on Education Studies, Ser. IV—American Youth Commission, Volume 1, No. 1.)

Identifies and gives a brief description of 180 national, regional, State, and local surveys carried on in the United States since 1931. An appendix contains references to some recent youth surveys made in Great Britain.

Foundations of NYA guidance, including bibliographies and annotated references. By Mildred E. Lincoln. Albany, National Youth Administration for New York State, 1937. 108 pp.

General Reports

Labor in depression and recovery, 1929 to 1937. By Witt Bowden. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 37 pp. (Serial No. R. 651, reprint from November 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Annual report of Secretary of Interior, for fiscal year ending June 30, 1937. Washington, 1937. xxii, 410 pp.

Contains the reports of the various branches of the Department, among them the Safety Division of the Bureau of Mines, Office of Education, Office of Indian Affairs, and Office of Adviser on Negro Affairs. Data on employment of Indians, taken from the volume, are published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Twenty-fifth annual report of Secretary of Labor, for fiscal year ended June 30, 1937. Washington, 1937. 139 pp.

In addition to the Secretary of Labor's review of labor conditions in the United States, and certain recommendations on public policy on labor matters, this report contains a detailed account of the current activities of each of the bureaus and divisions of the Department of Labor.

Annual report of Commissioner of Labor of Puerto Rico [fiscal year July 1, 1936, to June 30, 1937]. San Juan, 1937. 161 pp.

Data concerning average earnings and hours in specified industries, and earnings of home workers in the needlework industry, from this publication, are given in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review. The report also contains information on collective agreements, strikes, wage claims, workmen's compensation, employment-office activities, homesteading, women and children in industry, and labor legislation.

Statistisches jahrbuch für das Deutsche Reich. Berlin, Statistisches Reichsamt, 1937. Various paging.

Statistics of wages, employment and unemployment, employment of the partially disabled, prices, cost of living, housing, welfare work, social insurance, the youth movement, and legal aid, in Germany in 1937 and preceding years, with a summary review of the same conditions in foreign countries.

Statistical abstract, 1937, Irish Free State. Dublin, Department of Industry and Commerce, 1937. xvi, 198 pp.

The data include statistics of population and population movements in 1936; mortality rates by causes, 1929 to 1935; employment and total earnings by industry, 1931 to 1935; industrial analyses of live employment-exchange registers, by months, 1935 and 1936; and number insured under various social-insurance systems, 1936.

Report of New Zealand Department of Labor [fiscal year April 1, 1936, to March 31, 1937]. Wellington, 1937. 46 pp.

Sections of the report are devoted to such subjects as employment and unemployment, the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Amendment Act of 1936, and hours of labor fixed by award for various occupations.

Report of Director of Labor and Chief Inspector of Factories and Shops, Queensland, for year ended June 30, 1937. Brisbane, Department of Labor, 1937. 76 pp.

Annual report on working of Factories and Steam Boilers Department, South Australia, for year ended December 31, 1936. Adelaide, 1937. 27 pp.

Largely a statistical report, it shows volume of employment by industries, wages paid, extent of overtime work, accidents, and related labor facts.

Report of Department of Labor and Social Welfare, Union of South Africa, for year ended December 1936, with which are included reports of chief inspector of factories, workmen's compensation commissioner, and wage board. Pretoria, 1937. 100 pp.

Reviews the work of the department in connection with unemployment relief, training and placement of the unemployed, social-welfare work, and administration of industrial laws.

World economic review, 1936: Part II, Foreign countries. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, 1937. 275 pp.

For many of the countries, data are given on employment, unemployment, wages, and prices.

Bulletin de l'Institut International de Statistique (session d'Athènes, 1936). Athens, Greece, 1937. 303 pp.

Reports presented at the 23d session of the International Statistical Institute, Athens, 1936, covering vital and health statistics, prices, cost of living, etc., in different countries.

University debaters' annual: Constructive and rebuttal speeches delivered in debates of American colleges and universities during the college year 1936–1937. Edited by Edith M. Phelps and Julia E. Johnsen. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1937. 533 pp.

The current volume contains the texts of debates and lists of references on 11 topics. Four of these deal with labor problems—hours, wages, strikes, and cooperation—and three others deal with closely related subjects, namely, the Constitution in relation to social change, government ownership of electric utilities, and teachers' oaths of allegiance.

Secretarial assistance in teachers colleges and normal schools. By Luther Jordan Bennett. New York, Columbia University, Teachers College, 1937. 86 pp., maps, charts. (Contributions to Education, No. 724.)

One chapter deals with general conditions of employment—wages, working hours, vacations, etc.

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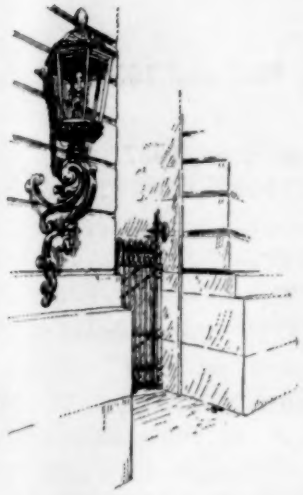

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HUGH S. HANNA, *Editor*

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This Issue in Brief

Working Woman's Budget.

The construction of an adequate budget for working women in New York, to be used in the determination of minimum wage rates, is described in an article on page 571. Standards of the goods and services that would be necessary to fulfill the statutory obligation of the minimum wage to provide adequate maintenance and to protect health were first established. The prices that would have to be paid in the cities and towns of New York State for all the items entering into this acceptable standard of living were then ascertained. For the State as a whole, the annual cost of living according to the standards accepted as adequate was found to be $1,192 for a woman worker living alone, and $1,058 for one living as a member of a family.

Accidents and the Business Cycle.

The frequency rate of disabling industrial accidents, i. e., number of disabling accidents per million hours worked, moved in general conformity with the trend of employment during the period 1929–35, in spite of the fact that the frequency rate has no particular relation to the number of persons employed. There also was a close direct relationship between the percentage of disabilities not exceeding 7 days and the employment index, which can be explained primarily as the result of the incomplete reporting of such injuries by workers during depression years. The factors which explain the relationship arise out of economic changes due to the business cycle. The survey on which these conclusions are based covered 29 manufacturing industries and 426,000 disabling injuries. Page 579.

Effect of Power Farming on Labor.

Recent developments in the Cotton Belt indicate that methods of farming in that region are undergoing a process of transformation that is likely to result in profound changes in the industrial and social conditions of the people whose lives have heretofore depended almost wholly upon the production of cotton. It seems entirely likely that within the next few decades the old systems of cropper and tenant farming will entirely disappear, giving place to large industrialized farms operated by hired workers most of whom will not live on the land. Thus far, these changes are not due to the introduction of any one outstanding invention, such as the much talked of cotton picker, but to an acceleration of the process of farm mechanization in general, in which the increased use of the farm tractor, especially the all-purpose pneumatic-tired type, is the most important factor. Page 595.

Consumption Habits of the American People.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics is bringing to a conclusion two major studies of consumption, a study of the money disbursements of wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers in 55 cities, begun in the fall of 1934, for the purpose of revising and extending its indexes of the cost of goods purchased by this group, and an investigation of broader scope, undertaken in the winter of 1935–36, covering the consumer purchases of families of all income and occupational groups in 32 cities. The subject matter covered by the two studies is identical, but the groups covered and the methods of sampling and of analysis are different.

Figures on the incomes of native white families including husband and wife show that among those not having been on relief at any time during the year covered by the schedule, the median income varies from approximately $1,200 in Gastonia, N. C., to slightly over $2,000 in New York City. Median incomes for the Negro families including husband and wife and not having received relief at any time during the year vary from $460 in Albany, Ga., to $1,350 in New York City. Page 608.

Burial Cooperatives.

Although the first known cooperative burial association was started as early as 1915, cooperative activity in this line is found in only the five States of Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska, and South Dakota. As a large membership is necessary in this type of association, the present tendency is toward larger and larger units. The newest associations are those serving a number of local cooperative store associations throughout a whole district—representing a combined membership of 5,500–6,000 persons. The 1936 activities of these associations are described on page 647.

Union Wage Rates of Motortruck Drivers.

The average wage rate of union motortruck drivers increased 6.6 percent between May 15, 1936, and May 15, 1937. The average hourly rate in 1937 was 76.7 cents; in 1936 it was 71.9 cents. More than half the members had rates of between 60 and 80 cents per hour in both years. The average full-time hours per week were 48.2 in 1936 and 47.8 in 1937. Almost two-thirds of the members had scales of 48 hours per week in both years. Further information on union scales of wages and hours of motortruck drivers in 60 cities will be found on page 745.

Collective Bargaining on New York City Transit Lines.

During 1937 collective bargaining was generally established for the first time in the New York City passenger transportation industry. With the signing of 11 contracts before the close of the year, the Transport Workers Union has been recognized as the sole bargaining agent for the workers in the major surface transit lines, for most of the taxicab drivers, and for elevated and underground transportation with the exception of the city-owned Independent Subway System. Average weekly wages of bus operators increased $3 after the signing of contracts. A flat 10 percent increase was provided in the subway contracts. Page 686.

National Health Survey.

Approximately 6 million persons are ill and unable to work, to attend school, or pursue other usual activities each day during the winter months, according to an estimate by the United States Public Health Service based on a national health survey covering 740,000 families in urban communities and 36,000 families in selected rural areas. The study shows the frequency and severity of various illnesses in the different age groups and according to economic status. The relation between poverty and sickness is shown by the fact that disabling illness lasting 1 week or longer occurred at a rate 57 percent higher among families on relief than among families with annual incomes of $3,000 or over. Relief and low-income families not only experience more frequent illness during a year than the higher income groups but their illnesses are on an average of longer duration. Page 664.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR MARCH 1938

LIVING COSTS OF WORKING WOMEN IN NEW YORK

By FRIEDA S. MILLER, *New York State Department of Labor*

IN THE spring of 1937 the Legislature of the State of New York passed a new minimum-wage law based on the declared public policy that "women and minors employed in any occupation should receive wages sufficient to provide adequate maintenance and to protect their health." The act provides that wage boards, in establishing minimum wages, may take into account (1) the amount sufficient to provide adequate maintenance and to protect health, (2) the value of the service or class of service rendered, and (3) wages paid in the State for work of like or comparable character.

In its reference to adequate maintenance the law differs from earlier attempts to establish minimum wages for women and minors in New York State. Since the Department of Labor had the responsibility of setting the law in motion, the first step necessary was to make an exhaustive study of living standards of wage-earning women, so that wage boards could be furnished with data as to what constitutes adequate maintenance and the protection of health under conditions prevailing in New York State today, from as careful, extensive, and objective a study of the information available as that on which the reports to wage boards on wages and working conditions in the industries are based.

Two separate steps had to be taken before the statement of public policy in the act, "that women and minors employed in any occupation should receive wages sufficient to provide adequate maintenance and to protect their health," could be translated into specific information for wage-board use. First, there had to be determined as exactly as possible a list of the goods and services which should represent what was meant by adequate maintenance. Second, the price that would have to be paid for all of these items in the towns and cities of New York State had to be ascertained.

But before beginning to list the goods (the clothing, food, drugs, etc.) and the services (dry cleaning, movies, medical services, etc.) which make up this standard, one fundamental decision was made. This budget should not be a charity budget. It should not be a mere carry-over. It should not count on the philanthropic agencies

of the communities to piece out the health care, the recreation, and the housing needed but not provided by it. The preamble of the law definitely characterizes as "a serious form of unfair competition against other employers and employees" wages which have to be "supplemented by the payment of public moneys for relief or other public assistance." Consequently, the items in the budget must provide adequately for the woman who is to live on it. The clothing budget must give her, currently and continuously, an adequate wardrobe. The food budget must be not merely a "tide-over" until better days may come, but such as would keep her in health were she to follow it all her days. In short, complete self-support must be possible under its terms.

In addition, the items that go into the budget must take cognizance of the time and place for which it is prepared. Housing adequate for the tropics will not be adequate for New York State; neither will the housing of 1776 do for today. Electric light and modern plumbing must be included for the working women of New York's 1930's, not alone because her self-respect requires that she be not invidiously distinguished from her peers, but because community health and safety require certain minimum housing standards for metropolitan areas, which may not be disregarded in the budget. When it comes to food, there are, of course, certain standards laid down by the nutritionists which furnish definite guidance, though community food habits also influence the items to be included. The clothing provided fails to serve the working woman's need if it merely covers her and keeps her warm. Therefore, the items in an adequate minimum budget must make provision for appearance which will permit the worker to compete for and hold her job. Similarly, every other category of the budget must be set up and judged in terms of present-day needs. Thus the budget becomes a "standard" of adequacy.

Goods and Services Included

However, none of these preliminary decisions determine what goods and services will actually establish a minimum adequate standard. To do that is obviously an undertaking of such scope as to require the expert assistance of authorities in at least half a dozen fields. What is adequate minimum housing, for example, is certainly best known to persons who have been actively engaged in promoting proper housing, especially with reference to the residents of New York State today. In the same way, what is an adequate minimum food allowance is best known to persons who have been working on problems of nutrition. In these and other budgetary fields, the actual purchases and use habits of the communities and the groups in these communities for which the standard is set up must also be taken into consideration.

Therefore, the construction of the standard budget was planned and conducted, from the very beginning, in conjunction with practitioners and experts in the various fields. Work was begun by consulting all published material, such as budgets of other agencies and studies of consumer expenditures where these related to women in the lower income groups. Among the latter was the study of expenditures of wage earners' families made by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1934, covering several cities in New York State. Always, however, it was clearly understood that family budgets or expenditures and relief budgets could not be followed since this survey was concerned with the cost of living of the *self-supporting woman.*

The other source of information and guidance in the development of the standard has been the general advice and criticism of each specific section of the budget by men, women, and organizations in New York State, active and respected as leaders in their various fields. For example, the standards for the kind of housing which was to pass muster in the pricing of actual family quarters and furnished rooms were submitted to a number of individual authorities in the field and to interested organizations.

Although only a simple list of goods and services find a place in this standard, it is at the same time essential that the standard be protected against erroneous interpretation. For example, the figure published is an *annual* figure because that is the only basis on which an adequate standard can be maintained. It is true that one fifty-second of that figure is what it takes to live per week; but with incomes in most women-employing industries highly restricted by the seasonal nature of the work, the comparison between a weekly pay envelope for a busy week and the expenses for one fifty-second of a year would give no indication of a worker's ability to maintain decent living standards.

In drawing up the commodity-quantity budget for woman wage earners, the department found it imperative to distinguish between the expenses of those who live as members of families and those who live alone. The principal differences occur in the housing and food items; the self-supporting woman living as a member of the family pays her proportionate share of the rent of the family dwelling and the cost of food, whereas the woman living alone pays for food and shelter in the form of meals in restaurants and a furnished room.

Description of Standards

The standards used for each section of the budget are described briefly below:

Food.—The standards accepted for the nutrition needs of working women represent a mean between a minimum-cost diet which requires

the most careful buying and avoidance of any waste if it is to furnish adequate nutrition, and a moderate-cost diet more nearly available to the average girl. The food requirements were established on the basis of the needs of an average worker, since it is obviously impossible to prepare a diet that will apply equally well to all members of a group. Generally accepted nutritive standards were used to determine varieties of food required and the approximate quantities.

The food budget is intended to be a general budget, representative of the usual requirements of employed women in New York State covered by the minimum-wage law and does not pretend to meet the varying needs and tastes of any individual woman. The cost of food for the woman living as a member of a family was based on the cost of raw food consumed at home plus the cost of lunches out on 5 days a week. The cost of food for the woman living alone, on the other hand, was based on the cost of three adequate meals per day in restaurants.

Other home expenses for woman living as member of family.—(1) Housing (rent including cost of heat and hot water and light, cooking fuel, and refrigeration): In collecting the rent data for wage earners' housing in each community the following standards were used as a guide:

> The house should not be located in a neighborhood which is generally known to have a bad reputation.
>
> The house should be reasonably accessible to public transportation facilities.
>
> It should be in a good state of repair.
>
> In a city that has a sewer system, the toilet and bathroom facilities should be connected with that system. In all cases each family should have a private toilet, running water, and tub or shower.
>
> Adequate heating facilities and electricity for lighting should be available.
>
> The building and the dwelling should conform to prevailing legal standards (those that are generally enforced in the community) as to construction, fire protection, light and air, sanitation, etc.
>
> Every habitable room should have one or more windows opening directly on a street or on a court or yard not less than 8 feet wide.
>
> Every bathroom should be ventilated by one or more windows opening on a street or court, or by a vent shaft, or by artificial ventilation.

(2) Maintenance of household equipment, household supplies, and mother's services: To cover the working woman's contribution to the family for her share of (*a*) the maintenance of household equipment, (*b*) household supplies, and (*c*) services of the mother in the home for the preparation of food, cleaning, laundering, and other services, 50 percent is added to the cost of raw food for 50 weeks consumed at home by the woman worker and to the working woman's share of housing, fuel, and light.

Housing for the woman living alone consists of a furnished room with laundering privileges. The room should be in a good state of repair, meeting the same housing standards as for a woman living

with her family, with the added requirements that the room should be provided with sufficient bedding, bed linen, and towels, and should contain adequate furniture, including a light suitable for sewing and reading.

TABLE 1.—*Articles of Clothing in Budget*

Item	Annual allowance	Description
Outergarments:		
Coats:		
Winter	⅓	Wool, heavy weight, fur trimmed, medium quality.
Spring	½	Wool, light weight, untrimmed, inexpensive quality.
Hats: Felt	4	Wool felt, inexpensive quality, 2 light and 2 heavy weight.
Dresses, total	8	
Cotton	2	Medium quality, styled for street wear.
Rayon	4	Street length, 3 fair quality, 1 inexpensive quality.
Wool	1	Medium quality.
Party	1	Rayon, inexpensive quality.
Skirt, sweater, and blouse:		
Skirt	1	Wool, medium quality.
Sweater	½	Do.
Blouse	1	Rayon, medium quality.
Smock	1	Cotton.
Undergarments:		
Vests	2	Knit rayon, medium quality.
Bloomers or panties, total	5	
Rayon	4	3 bloomers, 1 stepin or pantie, knit rayon, medium quality.
Silk	1	Stepin or pantie, silk crepe, medium quality.
Slips, total	4	
Rayon	3	Woven rayon, good quality.
Silk	1	Silk crepe, medium quality.
Girdles	2	Woven elastic yarn, cotton and rayon covered, medium quality.
Brassieres	3	Cotton, medium quality.
Nightgowns, total	3	
Cotton	1	Medium quality.
Rayon	1	Knit rayon, medium quality.
Cotton flannel	1	Outing flannel.
Dressing gowns:		
Bathrobe	⅓	Wool flannel, medium quality.
Kimono	½	Rayon, inexpensive quality.
Footwear:		
Shoes, total	4½	
Street	2	Medium quality.
Dress	1	Do.
Summer	1	Dress, white, inexpensive quality.
Shoes to wear with party dress.	½	Inexpensive quality.
Rubbers and overshoes:		
Rubbers	½	Good quality.
Overshoes	½	Medium quality.
House slippers	½	Kid, medium quality.
Stockings	20	Silk, 4 thread, 42 gauge, pure-dye thread; full fashioned.
Miscellaneous:		
Raincoat	⅓	Rubberized cotton twill, medium quality.
Umbrella	½	Cotton, medium quality.
Gloves, total	3	
Cotton fabric	2	Medium quality, washable.
Leather	1	Medium quality, kidskin.
Handbags	2	Lump sum of $3.00.[1]
Handkerchiefs	12	Lump sum of $1.50.[1]
Accessories: Scarf, belts, flowers, garters, shoestrings, collars, dress shields, dress ornaments, etc.	----------	5 percent of total cost of preceding items.[1]

[1] A specific sum (or fixed percentage of the total budget) is allowed for these items since they are extremely difficult to price, owing to the wide variation in type and the consequent difficulty of drawing up exact specifications to insure the pricing of comparable articles in different places.

NOTE.—Sport clothing is included in the recreation budget.

Clothing.—Table 1 gives a detailed list of the clothing items included in the budget. This list was drawn up to represent a standard of adequate clothing for the average working woman in New York State

today. Substitutions can be made to meet individual preferences. (The annual allowance is given as a fraction for some items to indicate the replacement period; for example, one-third of a winter coat annually means that one winter coat is bought every 3 years.)

Clothing upkeep includes dry cleaning, laundering, shoe repairs, etc.

Personal care covers such items as toilet articles and preparations and beauty-shop services.

Medical care.—Standards of adequate health services as determined by the Committee on Costs of Medical Care for the general population were adjusted to meet the needs of adult woman workers. These included general medical care for prevention and treatment of illness, in addition to dentistry and eye care. A minimum supply of drugs and medicines was also allowed.

Leisure-time activities.—Movies, club dues, recreational equipment, vacation expenses for 2 weeks, church contributions, and reading material were included in the budget.

Insurance and savings included life insurance and compulsory contributions to Federal old-age insurance, as well as savings for emergencies.

Other living essentials are transportation charges, contributions to charity, candy, cigarettes, and incidentals.

Cost of Items

Having budgeted the kinds and amount of goods and services required for adequate maintenance and the protection of health, the second step was to price these items in representative cities and towns of the State. The information on prices was obtained by trained field representatives of the Division of Women in Industry and Minimum Wage from representative stores, shops, and professional offices. In planning this work assistance had been obtained from chambers of commerce, trade associations, real-estate boards, labor organizations, and other groups interested in the problem. The pricing was done in 16 cities, ranging in population from Hempstead, Long Island, with 12,650 inhabitants, to New York City.

The findings indicate that the amount the working woman in New York State today requires "for adequate maintenance and the protection of health" is $1,058.31 annually for the woman living as a member of a family, and $1,192.46 annually for the woman living alone.

Itemized costs of the budgets for the woman living alone and for the woman living with her family in various types of community in New York State are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Annual Cost of Adequate Maintenance and Protection of Health for Woman Workers in New York State, 1937*

WOMAN WORKER LIVING ALONE

Item	New York State	Communities with population of—				New York City
		10,000 and under 25,000	25,000 and under 50,000	50,000 and under 100,000	100,000 and over (except New York City)	
Total	$1,192.46	$1,228.16	$1,214.72	$1,187.97	$1,170.96	$1,192.57
Housing and food, total	617.38	624.85	626.44	614.24	593.23	620.46
Rent for furnished room, including laundering privileges	238.85	225.85	216.06	201.24	220.48	245.96
Food [1]	378.53	399.00	410.38	413.00	372.75	374.50
Clothing, total	196.81	199.66	192.70	192.93	192.59	198.18
Outergarments	102.27	105.75	99.62	98.48	98.97	103.26
Undergarments	27.62	26.88	27.02	27.70	27.06	27.85
Footwear	45.46	45.37	44.92	45.12	45.32	45.56
Miscellaneous	21.46	21.66	21.14	21.63	21.24	21.51
Clothing upkeep	14.39	16.68	19.54	19.06	19.02	12.70
Personal care	34.01	36.86	34.37	32.70	33.94	33.87
Medical care	55.70	54.52	53.54	50.48	52.38	56.92
Insurance and savings	72.92	73.28	73.15	72.88	72.71	72.93
Leisure-time activities, total	106.75	102.71	99.88	99.58	100.99	109.11
Recreation	45.91	40.21	37.69	37.08	38.80	48.80
Vacation	40.00	40.00	40.00	40.00	40.00	40.00
Education and reading material	13.04	14.70	14.39	14.70	14.39	12.51
Church contributions	7.80	7.80	7.80	7.80	7.80	7.80
Other living essentials, total	94.50	119.60	115.10	106.10	106.10	88.40
Transportation	55.90	81.00	76.50	67.50	67.50	49.80
Charity, gifts	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00
Candy, cigarettes, etc	15.60	15.60	15.60	15.60	15.60	15.60
Incidentals	13.00	13.00	13.00	13.00	13.00	13.00

WOMAN WORKER LIVING AS MEMBER OF FAMILY

Total	$1,058.31	$1,112.49	$1,066.53	$1,053.18	$1,052.34	$1,055.68
Home expenses, total	486.76	512.34	481.93	482.80	478.00	487.14
Housing (rent) including cost of heat and hot water	136.02	155.32	136.28	137.77	139.71	133.07
Light, cooking fuel, and refrigerating fuel (ice or electricity)	20.85	26.14	20.61	21.29	18.69	21.05
Food [1]	197.38	188.43	194.39	193.89	189.64	200.64
Maintenance of household equipment, household supplies, and mother's services, total	132.51	142.45	130.65	129.85	129.96	132.38
Based on 50 percent of cost of—						
Housing, light, and fuel	78.44	90.73	78.45	79.53	79.20	77.06
Food consumed at home	54.07	51.72	52.20	50.32	50.76	55.32
Clothing, total	196.81	199.66	192.70	192.93	192.59	198.18
Outergarments	102.27	105.75	99.62	98.48	98.97	103.26
Undergarments	27.62	26.88	27.02	27.70	27.06	27.85
Footwear	45.46	45.37	44.92	45.12	45.32	45.56
Miscellaneous	21.46	21.66	21.14	21.63	21.24	21.51
Clothing upkeep	12.20	14.68	17.34	17.06	16.82	10.50
Personal care	34.01	36.86	34.37	32.70	33.94	33.87
Medical care	55.70	54.52	53.54	50.48	52.38	56.92
Insurance and savings	71.58	72.12	71.67	71.53	71.52	71.56

[1] The food allowance is for 50 weeks only, since food for 2 weeks is included in vacation allowance.

TABLE 2.—*Annual Cost of Adequate Maintenance and Protection of Health for Woman Workers in New York State, 1937*—Continued

WOMAN WORKER LIVING AS MEMBER OF FAMILY—Continued

Item	New York State	Communities with population of—				New York City
		10,000 and under 25,000	25,000 and under 50,000	50,000 and under 100,000	100,000 and over (except New York City)	
Leisure-time activities, total	$106.75	$102.71	$99.88	$99.58	$100.99	$109.11
Recreation	45.91	40.21	37.69	37.08	38.80	48.80
Vacation	40.00	40.00	40.00	40.00	40.00	40.00
Education and reading material	13.04	14.70	14.39	14.70	14.39	12.51
Church contributions	7.80	7.80	7.80	7.80	7.80	7.80
Other living essentials, total	94.50	119.60	115.10	106.10	106.10	88.40
Transportation	55.90	81.00	76.50	67.50	67.50	49.80
Charity, gifts	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00
Candy, cigarettes, etc	15.60	15.60	15.60	15.60	15.60	15.60
Incidentals	13.00	13.00	13.00	13.00	13.00	13.00

Relation of Budget to Wage Decision

The report of the budget survey was presented to the Laundry Minimum Wage Board, the first to be established under the new law, which began its deliberations on December 6, 1937. It must be emphasized that the responsibility which the law puts upon the Department of Labor is not that of arriving at a *wage rate*. That is the responsibility of each wage board for each industry as it is appointed. In establishing minimum wages for any industry, wage boards are not bound to fix a rate equal to what it would cost to live at this standard of adequate maintenance. They may take into account also the value of the service or class of service rendered, and may consider the wages paid in the State for work of like or comparable character. In the words of Commissioner Andrews in presenting these figures, "We know that in many instances a first wage board for an industry will not be able at once to bring wages up to the standard here set. We expect, however, that with the recognition of the situation as we have found it, there will be a gradual rise from present levels to real adequacy."

INDUSTRIAL INJURIES AND THE BUSINESS CYCLE

By MAX D. KOSSORIS, *U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics*

WHAT was the course of industrial injuries during the recent depression and subsequent recovery? An analysis made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of more than 426,000 disabling injuries for the years 1929 through 1935 reveals (1) that the trend of the frequency rate of industrial injuries generally followed the trend of industrial employment, and (2) that the trend of the percentage of reported injuries with a disability duration of 1 week or less followed the trend of industrial employment very closely. In other words, as employment decreased, the frequency rate as well as the percentage of so-called "1-week" cases generally decreased; and as employment increased, both the frequency rate and percentage of 1-week cases generally increased.

Trend of Industrial Injuries

For the composite group of 29 manufacturing industries, the trend of the frequency rate of disabling industrial injuries moved in general conformity with the trend of employment.[1] (See table 1 and chart 1.)

TABLE 1.—*Trends of Disabling Industrial Injuries and Employment in 29 Manufacturing Industries, 1929–35*

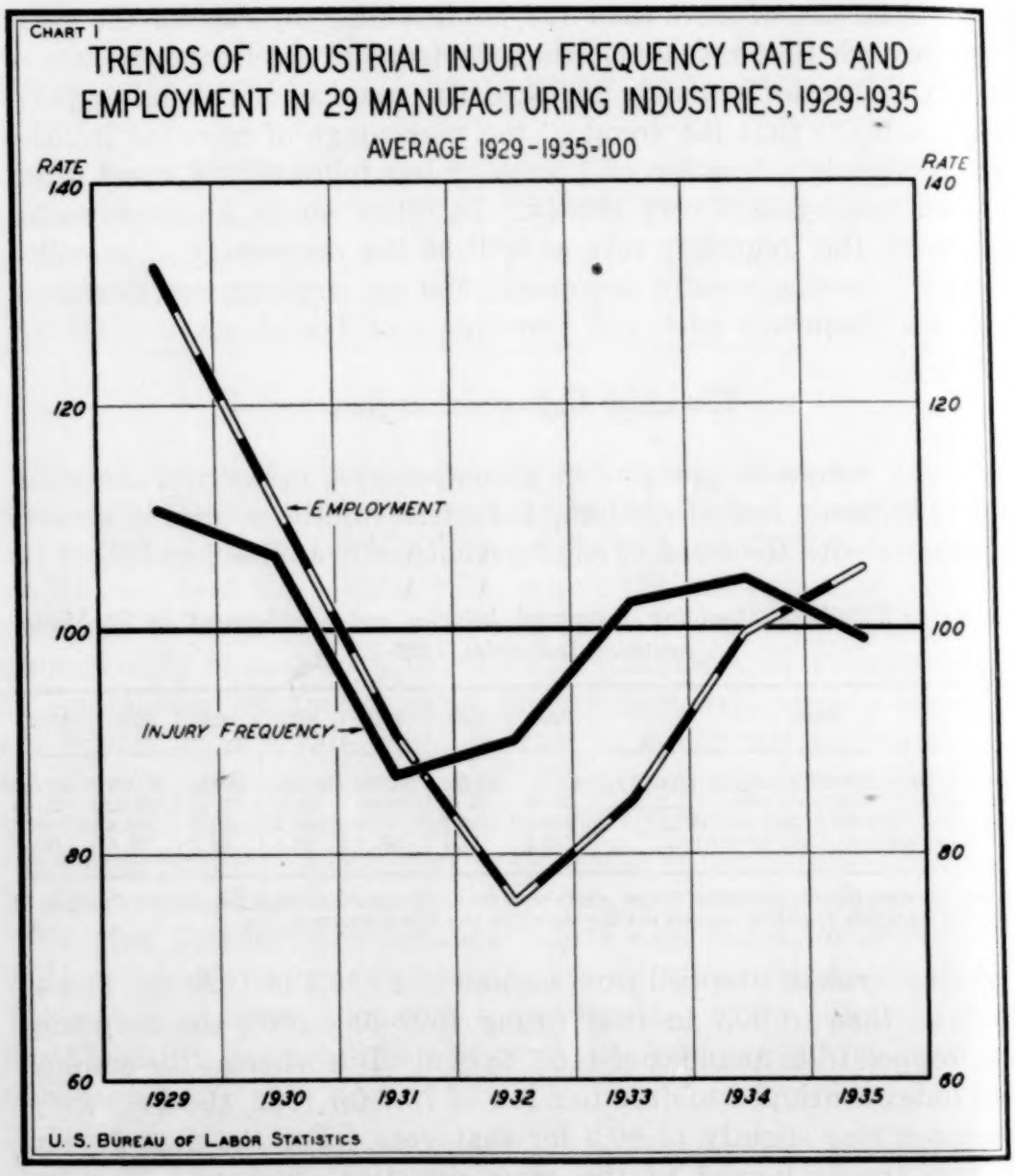
Item	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Total number of disabling injuries studied [1]	82,734	62,561	55,142	36,104	54,494	67,168	68,182
Industrial injury frequency rate	23.98	23.08	18.85	19.55	22.17	22.62	21.46
Index of frequency rate (1929–35=100)	110.7	106.5	87.0	90.2	102.3	104.4	99.0
Index of employment (1929–35=100)	132.4	111.4	90.7	75.7	84.7	99.6	105.4

[1] These data are from a number of States whose workmen's compensation laws require the reporting of all injuries for which disability exceeds the day on which the injury occurred.

As employment dropped from an index of 132.4 in 1929 to 111.4 in 1930 and then to 90.7 in 1931 (using 1929–35=100), the frequency rate dropped from an index of 110.7 to 87.0 But whereas the employment index continued to drop to a low of 75.7 for 1932, the frequency-rate index rose slightly to 90.2 for that year. For the next 2 years the two trends moved in the same direction—upward. The frequency rate rose more sharply than employment in 1933, whereas

[1] The composite frequency rates given in table 1 were arrived at by weighting the frequency rate for each industry according to the average number of wage earners, using census data where available and calculating data for intercensus years by means of the indexes of employment computed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The employment indexes were calculated similarly, with the average for the period 1923–25=100. Because no frequency rates were available for this base period, the two series, i. e., frequency rates and employment, were recomputed with the annual average 1929–35=100, thus making the two series strictly comparable. It is these two series which are shown on chart 1.

employment rose more sharply during 1934. In 1935, the two trends moved in opposite directions—the employment index continued to increase, from 99.6 in 1934 to 105.4 in 1935, while the frequency-rate index decreased from 104.4 to 99.0, with a decrease of more than one disabling injury per million hours worked. On the whole, as is clearly apparent from chart 1, the two trends moved in the same general direction, with 1935 the only notable exception.



Why should there be this relationship between the frequency rate and employment? The frequency rate measures the average number of disabling injuries per million man-hours, and therefore has no direct relation to the volume of employment. Theoretically, the frequency rate could remain constant regardless of whether the volume of employment moved up or down. All that is required to reach this result is that there shall be the same average number of dis-

abling injuries per million man-hours worked. This relationship need not be affected by any fluctuations in the volume of employment.

The reasons for fluctuations in the frequency rate generally, and the close correlation of its trend with that of the employment index, must be sought in the economic factors which accompanied the depression. It certainly cannot be said that the downward trend during the depression years was due to greater managerial concern for safety during this period, for in many instances safety activities were discontinued or severely curtailed as economy measures. Consequently, it would be in order to anticipate rising frequency rates rather than falling rates during depression periods. Why, then, did the rate fall so sharply from the level of 1929 to the levels of 1931 and 1932? Four reasons are suggested here, the first three of which are generally accepted by safety engineers, whereas the fourth follows from an analysis of the data:

1. As the depression deepened, labor forces were curtailed, with those most recently added laid off first. This generally left employed workers with long years of service and, usually, those of the skilled or semiskilled types which management wanted to retain as a nucleus for subsequent expansion. Such workers generally were thoroughly familiar with job hazards and had developed safety habits which were carried from job to job. As a result, there were fewer disabling injuries per million hours worked, and the frequency rate decreased.

2. In the early stages of depression, lay-offs tended to lag behind reductions in operation, with the result that the total number of man-hours worked exceeded those which would ordinarily have been required. Coupled with decreased numbers of injuries, attributable to a general slowing down in operating tempo, the swollen man-hours total resulted in a lowering of the frequency rate (which is the average number of disabling injuries per million man-hours).[2]

3. As business conditions became worse, management shifted toward the use of the most efficient equipment, which generally meant the most modern equipment. Such equipment, as a general rule, was also the safest. This factor in itself would be sufficient to reduce the frequency rate. Coupled with a more skilled and safety-conscious labor force, it was still more effective.

4. As the depression deepened, the number of reported disabilities not exceeding 1 week decreased out of proportion to the general decrease in industrial injuries generally. As will be pointed out later, there is a strong probability that many minor injuries, which under more normal conditions would have caused disabilities ranging from

[2] In connection with man-hours, one other point which may affect the frequency rate must be noted: There is a possibility that during the depression man-hours were overestimated by reporting employers who may not have allowed sufficiently for part-time operations. The reporting requirements instituted under N. R. A. codes may have overcome this difficulty. The overestimating of man-hours worked during the depression years, if it occurred, would have operated to depress the frequency rate.

1 to 3 days, were not reported by workers. As a result, the number of disabling injuries which entered into the calculation of the frequency rate was depressed.[3]

From these explanations it can also be readily understood why the frequency rate should have risen as employment increased. With the relatively small increase in employment from an index of 75.7 in 1932 to 84.7 in 1933, the frequency-rate index rose from 90.2 to 102.3—which, as a composite rate for the entire group of 29 industries, is a very sharp increase. The obvious reason for this rise is that increases in employment meant hiring of workers not accustomed to the hazards of their new jobs, or workers whose safety habits had been blunted through lengthy lay-offs and financial worries, and who, perhaps, were too eager to make a favorable showing.

Evidence that newly added employees, as a group, were the greatest source of disabling injuries is furnished by the petroleum industry.[4]

The following data are cited from a recent study by a large oil company:

TABLE 2.—*Relation of Accidental Injuries to Length of Employment*

Length of employment	Percent of total employees	Percent of total disabling accidental injuries
Less than 1 year	15.1	33.0
1 and under 2 years	7.3	11.3
2 and under 3 years	9.4	11.8
3 and under 5 years	19.7	11.8
Over 5 years	48.4	31.2

While employees with less than 1 year's service, i. e., newly added workers, formed only 15.1 percent of the total number of employees, they had 33.0 percent of all disabling accidental injuries. Workers with 2 and 3 years of employment also had a heavier percentage of injuries than their proportionate representation in the group as a whole. Not until the group with 3 and under 5 years of employment is reached does the percentage of total injuries fall below the percentage of total employment. Workers with less than 3 years' service,

[3] It has been suggested that this decrease might be due, in part at least, to a practice on the part of bodies administering workmen's compensation acts of discouraging the reporting of disabling accidents which do not exceed the waiting period in disability and therefore were not compensable. The need for economy and reduced budgets are cited as justification. No such practices have been found, however, and the definite downward and subsequent upward trend of 1-week cases do not bear out any such assumptions. It has therefore been disregarded.

[4] American Petroleum Institute. Accident Prevention Information, No. 67, April 15, 1937.

Similar data are given by the Portland Cement Association in its Accident Prevention Magazine of August 1937, covering the 1936 experience of the industry. Workers with less than 6 months' experience, although only 3 percent of the total, had 20 percent of all disabling injuries. Workers with less than 1 year's experience, only 5 percent of the total, had about 25 percent of all disabling injuries.

comprising only 31.8 percent of the total working force, had 56.1 percent of all disabling accidents.

One objection which may logically be raised against the conclusion that workers newly employed with a given concern have a higher proportion of disabling accidents than employees with longer periods of service is that many of such workers, while new to the particular establishment, may not be new to the industry. Consequently these workers should have some acquaintance with the accident hazards of their new jobs. While this is undoubtedly true, it is also well recognized that many of these workers had been out of work for a considerable period of time, with the result that their safety habits may have become blunted, and particularly so because the new environment may have presented somewhat different situations and may have resulted in different psychological factors than they had to cope with before. It is also a fairly common practice to shift workers with a longer service record to less hazardous assignments, thus leaving the more hazardous jobs to newly acquired workers.

From a low point of 75.7 in 1932, the volume of employment in the 29 manufacturing industries increased to an index of 99.6 in 1934 and 105.4 in 1935. With the volume of employment moving up rather slowly in these 2 years, the frequency rate of injuries dropped from 22.62 to 21.46, probably as a result of the accumulation of experience by workers taken on during 1933 and 1934. Data from other sources indicate that 1936 will show a still lower frequency rate against a continued increase in the index of employment.

If the experience described for the period from 1929 through 1935 may be taken as typical, it may be concluded that for the total of the 29 industries studied, and very likely for all manufacturing industries, the course of the injury frequency rate during a business cycle is about as follows:

1. As employment decreases, the frequency rate falls sharply. The low points of the frequency rate and employment index tend to coincide as to year.

2. With the first decided increase in employment, the frequency rate rises sharply, apparently because of the return to jobs of new or rehired former employees.

3. Subsequent increases in employment are accompanied by less decided increases in the frequency rate.

4. As employment tends to approach a plateau, the frequency rate turns downward, apparently because of the increasing skill and development of safety habits—and perhaps a greater feeling of security in the job—of workers hired or rehired during the preceding year.

A corroboration of these conclusions, except for point 4, is furnished by data for the State of Virginia. The following data start with 1931

rather than 1929, but the general trends are very similar to those already discussed.

TABLE 3.—*Injury Frequency Record in Virginia Manufacturing Industries, 1931–35*[1]

Year	Number of employees	Total man-hours worked	Disabling injuries	Frequency rate	Index[2]	
					Employment	Frequency rate
1931	94,261	226,003,775	4,453	19.7	94.0	107.7
1932	86,344	197,704,844	3,286	16.6	86.1	90.7
1933	93,454	203,687,920	3,555	17.4	93.2	95.1
1934	107,959	203,575,748	3,666	18.0	107.7	98.4
1935	119,175	232,401,588	4,641	19.9	118.9	108.7

[1] Data furnished by Industrial Commission of Virginia.
[2] Annual average 1931–35=100.

It is obvious from table 3 that, as in the national data, there is a close relationship between the trends of employment and the accident frequency rate. The employment index dropped from 94.0 in 1931 to 86.1 in 1932, and then rose year by year, reaching 118.9 in 1935. The frequency-rate index dropped from 107.7 in 1931 to 90.7 in 1932, and then rose year by year to 108.7 in 1935. The two trends moved together, both downward and upward. For the year 1935, for which it was possible to analyze more detailed figures, the following increases were found in the second half of the year over the first half: Employment, 8 percent; man-hours worked, 13 percent; number of disabling injuries, 28 percent; and injury frequency rate, 13 percent. An increase of 8 percent in employment, then, was accompanied by a 13 percent increase in the number of disabling accidents per million hours worked.

Another corroboration of the conclusion that the trends of employment and injury frequency rates generally move together is given by data published by the National Safety Council. Although there are radical differences in the scope and composition of the data used by the Council and the Bureau of Labor Statistics, it is significant that the general direction of the trends of the series from the two sources are the same. Reducing the frequency rates published by the National Safety Council in its Accident Facts, 1936 edition, to an index having the annual average of 1929–35=100, we arrive at the following index numbers of frequency rates:

1929	176	1933	98
1930	132	1934	103
1931	108	1935	92
1932	91		

Although this pattern does not cover the same group of industries and concerns itself with a more highly select group of firms than the sample covered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, it coincides in direction of trend with that for the 29 manufacturing industries, even to the downward trend from 1934 to 1935.

In its most recent publication of frequency rates, the Council gives a frequency rate of 13.57 for establishments reporting to it for 1936, as against a rate of 14.02 for 1935, bearing out the thought already indicated that with further increases in employment during 1936 there would be a further decrease in the frequency rate.

Experiences of Individual Industries

As is often the case in the analysis of a large number of industries, not all of them comply with the composite pattern for the entire group. The trends in most of the 29 industries, however, are sufficiently like that for the entire group to justify the conclusion that the latter is representative, and that the general trends already discussed are not due to the overbalancing of some industries moving in one direction by others moving in the opposite direction. Table 4 gives the individual industry data, and permits conclusions concerning the trends of frequency rates and employment indexes. The last column contains an evaluation of the degree of direct correlation of the two trends for each industry. The table also shows the frequency rate for each industry by type of disability—death, permanent injuries (including permanent total and permanent partial disabilities), and temporary disabilities.

TABLE 4.—*Injury Frequency Rates and Employment Indexes for 29 Manufacturing Industries, 1929–35*

[1923–25=100]

Item	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	Relation of total frequency rate to employment index
All industries:								
Frequency rate	23.98	23.08	18.85	19.55	22.17	22.62	21.46	Very close.
Deaths	.15	.17	.15	.17	.14	.17	.15	
Permanent disabilities	1.38	1.41	1.30	1.45	1.39	1.64	1.54	
Temporary disabilities	22.45	21.50	17.40	17.93	20.64	20.83	19.60	
Employment index	102.17	86.0	70.0	58.4	65.4	76.9	81.4	
Agricultural implements:								
Frequency rate	38.11	31.76	27.97	24.37	32.06	26.92	31.55	Close.
Deaths	.18	.23	.31	.17	.11	.11	.12	
Permanent disabilities	2.97	2.28	2.83	3.13	1.39	2.18	1.67	
Temporary disabilities	34.96	29.25	24.83	21.07	30.56	24.64	29.75	
Employment index	147.9	110.7	62.3	36.8	39.6	68.8	100.2	
Automobiles:								
Frequency rate	22.76	15.63	15.48	13.63	15.59	14.01	10.77	Fairly close.
Deaths	.08	.10	.09	.16	.07	.09	.07	
Permanent disabilities	1.71	1.49	1.50	1.70	1.12	1.40	1.16	
Temporary disabilities	20.97	14.04	13.89	11.77	14.40	12.52	9.54	
Employment index	111.3	80.3	71.0	60.5	60.6	94.5	110.4	
Automobile tires and rubber goods:								
Frequency rate	25.19	23.20	20.44	17.72	17.77	17.30	16.16	Fairly close.
Deaths	.11	.10	.22	.10	.10	.05	.08	
Permanent disabilities	.59	.53	.79	.56	.69	.62	.71	
Temporary disabilities	24.49	22.57	19.43	17.06	16.98	16.63	15.37	
Employment index	110.0	85.9	73.9	67.6	79.1	88.4	85.6	
Boots and shoes:								
Frequency rate	9.09	6.95	8.25	8.37	7.29	10.57	10.18	Poor.
Deaths	.01	.02	.03	.02	.04	.03	.02	
Permanent disabilities	.60	.40	.51	.57	.46	.61	.61	
Temporary disabilities	8.48	6.53	7.71	7.78	6.79	9.94	9.55	
Employment index	96.7	90.2	85.3	84.5	89.8	94.1	93.1	

TABLE 4.—*Injury Frequency Rates and Employment Indexes for 29 Manufacturing Industries, 1929–35*—Continued

Item	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	Relation of total frequency rate to employment index
Brick, tile, and terra cotta:								
Frequency rate	46.61	42.21	40.44	37.90	42.52	42.88	36.35	Close.
Deaths	.43	.26	.53	.46	.58	.25	.30	
Permanent disabilities	.89	.81	1.22	1.03	1.34	1.67	1.05	
Temporary disabilities	45.29	41.14	38.69	36.41	40.60	40.96	35.00	
Employment index	91.5	72.2	50.2	31.8	31.3	34.8	36.3	
Carpets and rugs:								
Frequency rate	9.15	8.25	10.72	8.89	7.96	10.46	10.45	Fairly close.
Deaths	.09	.03	.03	.06	.00	.05	.04	
Permanent disabilities	.72	.68	.89	.85	1.10	1.35	1.54	
Temporary disabilities	8.34	7.54	9.80	7.98	6.86	9.05	8.88	
Employment index	96.2	74.2	67.5	52.9	62.8	69.1	82.2	
Chemicals:								
Frequency rate	19.35	17.64	11.38	7.59	14.27	14.68	14.93	Very close.
Deaths	.15	.27	.27	.14	.15	.33	.32	
Permanent disabilities	1.23	1.09	.76	.83	.70	1.24	1.06	
Temporary disabilities	17.97	16.28	10.35	6.62	13.42	13.11	13.55	
Employment index	109.2	99.5	85.1	76.0	93.3	114.9	113.7	
Cotton goods:								
Frequency rate	15.01	13.88	[1] 9.18	14.04	14.02	14.21	13.19	Fairly close.
Deaths	.05	.04	.02	.04	.03	.06	.04	
Permanent disabilities	.60	.56	.32	.57	.57	.69	.71	
Temporary disabilities	14.36	13.28	8.84	13.43	13.42	13.46	12.44	
Employment index	96.1	80.7	74.5	67.1	85.9	91.2	87.8	
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies:								
Frequency rate	15.27	16.90	10.68	8.71	10.81	10.52	9.54	Close.
Deaths	.05	.08	.06	.14	.08	.08	.08	
Permanent disabilities	1.52	1.33	.94	.94	1.11	1.41	1.26	
Temporary disabilities	13.70	15.49	9.68	7.63	9.62	9.03	8.19	
Employment index	127.3	107.1	80.9	60.6	58.8	72.5	80.6	
Fertilizer:								Poor—frequency-rate trend almost continuously upward.
Frequency rate	37.99	31.23	33.39	34.14	42.49	48.54	46.73	
Deaths	.58	.44	.35	.44	.57	.95	.87	
Permanent disabilities	.84	1.08	1.12	.76	1.31	2.24	2.54	
Temporary disabilities	36.57	29.71	31.92	32.94	40.61	45.35	43.32	
Employment index	113.4	111.0	78.8	56.5	70.7	92.4	88.3	
Flour, feed, and other grain-mill products:								
Frequency rate	38.05	38.74	31.12	28.00	31.08	34.15	25.75	Very close.
Deaths	.21	.29	.18	.24	.15	.43	.32	
Permanent disabilities	.95	1.75	1.82	1.31	1.47	1.93	1.73	
Temporary disabilities	36.89	36.70	29.12	26.45	29.46	31.79	23.70	
Employment index [2]	80.6	73.9	68.1	65.7	69.2	78.2	76.9	
Foundry and machine-shop products:								
Frequency rate	33.69	26.50	26.09	23.79	28.83	26.79	26.55	Close.
Deaths	.11	.16	.25	.27	.15	.14	.12	
Permanent disabilities	1.59	1.59	1.73	1.78	2.19	2.49	2.11	
Temporary disabilities	31.99	24.75	24.11	21.74	26.49	24.16	24.32	
Employment index	111.3	94.2	69.7	51.1	54.6	70.4	76.9	
Furniture:								
Frequency rate	25.64	23.45	[1] 18.29	20.90	23.09	19.90	20.49	Close.
Deaths	.11	.13	.09	.21	.04	.06	.06	
Permanent disabilities	2.19	1.77	1.62	2.20	2.48	2.24	2.46	
Temporary disabilities	23.34	21.55	16.58	18.49	20.57	17.60	17.97	
Employment index	111.9	89.0	73.7	54.7	61.0	62.4	70.2	
Glass:								
Frequency rate	30.65	26.84	[1] 16.46	20.59	21.97	23.19	21.83	Close.
Deaths	.17	.08	.16	.07	.10	.18	.12	
Permanent disabilities	.52	.92	.56	.67	.74	.79	.78	
Temporary disabilities	29.96	25.84	15.74	19.85	21.13	22.22	20.92	
Employment index	96.7	83.8	71.5	59.6	71.3	91.6	96.3	
Hardware:								
Frequency rate	36.56	24.55	22.75	20.34	27.11	24.02	22.70	Close.
Deaths	.15	.10	.00	.14	.00	.24	.00	
Permanent disabilities	2.09	1.00	.48	1.26	2.29	2.84	2.29	
Temporary disabilities	34.32	23.45	22.27	18.94	24.82	20.94	20.41	
Employment index	101.7	88.6	70.3	58.9	63.4	77.8	75.8	
Iron and steel:								
Frequency rate	20.02	17.72	17.53	16.81	20.06	19.42	17.14	Close.
Deaths	.16	.19	.19	.15	.17	.17	.14	
Permanent disabilities	.79	.82	.89	.86	1.18	1.16	1.14	
Temporary disabilities	19.07	16.71	16.45	15.80	18.71	18.09	15.87	
Employment index [3]	103.2	90.3	68.4	57.8	71.0	83.6	88.4	

[1] These rates appear to be distorted, apparently due to erratic fluctuations in the reporting sample for 1931.
[2] Employment index for flour.
[3] Employment index for blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.

TABLE 4.—*Injury Frequency Rates and Employment Indexes for 29 Manufacturing Industries, 1929–35*—Continued

Item	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	Relation of total frequency rate to employment index
Leather:								
Frequency rate	24.39	24.25	20.78	26.12	23.48	25.82	23.41	
Deaths	.07	.09	.05	.30	.08	.06	.09	
Permanent disabilities	.56	.71	.73	.77	.68	1.31	1.41	Poor.
Temporary disabilities	23.76	23.45	20.00	25.05	22.72	24.45	21.92	
Employment index	91.1	84.6	76.9	68.8	80.7	90.5	94.9	
Lumber—logging and sawmills:								
Frequency rate	46.79	49.69	56.68	60.42	65.31	67.62	68.28	
Deaths	.47	.50	.47	.46	.59	.59	.63	
Permanent disabilities	2.36	3.91	3.78	4.66	3.56	3.86	4.34	Close.
Temporary disabilities	43.96	45.28	52.43	55.30	61.20	63.16	63.31	
Employment index	87.7	67.6	41.1	31.7	39.6	45.0	46.4	
Lumber—planing mills:								
Frequency rate	33.53	41.65	[1]22.21	37.46	38.94	33.45	37.84	
Deaths	.17	.10	.21	.00	.38	.27	.25	
Permanent disabilities	4.02	3.21	2.33	3.88	3.42	2.50	2.75	Fairly close.
Temporary disabilities	29.34	38.34	19.67	33.58	35.14	30.68	34.84	
Employment index [4]	84.6	64.4	51.1	35.0	33.2	35.4	41.8	
Machine tools:								
Frequency rate	26.44	21.94	15.53	15.70	19.18	16.63	17.62	
Deaths	.14	.27	.06	.32	.08	.12	.18	
Permanent disabilities	.99	.75	.68	.75	1.06	1.55	1.10	Fairly close.
Temporary disabilities	25.31	20.92	14.79	14.63	18.04	14.96	16.34	
Employment index	167.2	126.0	74.7	42.1	44.9	73.0	93.2	
Paper and pulp:								
Frequency rate	29.90	31.59	27.47	25.64	22.63	26.65	24.76	
Deaths	.13	.21	.21	.39	.16	.29	.17	
Permanent disabilities	1.86	1.91	1.46	1.62	1.35	1.81	1.54	Close.
Temporary disabilities	27.91	29.47	25.80	23.63	21.12	24.55	23.05	
Employment index	106.1	102.5	89.5	81.9	89.0	103.8	107.6	
Petroleum refining:								
Frequency rate	22.01	31.36	23.48	13.60	13.53	11.25	10.46	
Deaths	.36	.42	.47	.30	.32	.19	.10	Poor—frequency rate constantly downward.
Permanent disabilities	.89	1.60	.94	.87	1.29	1.65	1.29	
Temporary disabilities	20.76	29.34	22.07	12.43	11.92	9.41	9.06	
Employment index	124.4	124.9	106.2	98.7	106.5	118.3	116.7	
Pottery:								
Frequency rate	16.32	14.91	12.36	13.31	16.56	18.73	16.65	
Deaths	.03	.00	.08	.11	.12	.13	.16	
Permanent disabilities	.32	.40	.12	.63	.47	.65	.43	Close.
Temporary disabilities	15.97	14.51	12.16	12.57	15.97	17.94	16.06	
Employment index	94.7	82.9	72.3	58.6	63.2	72.2	72.6	
Shipbuilding, steel and wood:								
Frequency rate	23.59	29.66	[1]36.89	26.11	19.32	16.17	15.56	Fairly close—constant decrease of frequency rate from 1931 on.
Deaths	.24	.22	.21	.24	.21	.19	.29	
Permanent disabilities	1.15	1.77	1.12	1.00	1.56	1.44	1.50	
Temporary disabilities	22.20	27.67	35.56	24.87	17.55	14.54	13.78	
Employment index	101.3	107.3	83.0	66.7	56.8	71.7	76.5	
Slaughtering and meat packing:								
Frequency rate	46.12	38.52	33.75	28.46	30.39	39.21	26.99	
Deaths	.16	.24	.14	.08	.11	.16	.13	
Permanent disabilities	1.29	1.66	1.79	1.61	1.64	2.92	1.95	Very close.
Temporary disabilities	44.67	36.62	31.82	26.77	28.64	36.13	24.90	
Employment index	96.7	92.1	84.1	80.6	89.3	105.7	84.3	
Stamped and enameled ware:								
Frequency rate	30.54	19.89	[1]24.31	19.24	20.33	18.16	16.52	
Deaths	.12	.30	.07	.14	.08	.17	.12	
Permanent disabilities	3.00	1.67	1.88	2.19	2.39	2.30	1.64	Close.
Temporary disabilities	27.42	17.92	22.36	16.91	17.86	15.70	14.76	
Employment index	120.5	106.3	85.4	79.5	97.2	119.4	132.2	
Steam fittings, apparatus, and supplies:								
Frequency rate	31.24	30.36	23.23	23.01	15.93	17.07	17.85	
Deaths	.07	.15	.11	.32	.09	.04	.06	
Permanent disabilities	1.05	.86	1.04	.86	.93	1.20	1.11	Fairly close.
Temporary disabilities	30.12	29.35	22.08	21.83	14.91	15.84	16.69	
Employment index	91.6	78.3	67.1	47.4	51.6	49.6	54.8	
Stoves:								
Frequency rate	43.07	34.63	22.59	25.98	32.88	30.76	32.18	
Deaths	.10	.09	.23	.19	.09	.18	.14	
Permanent disabilities	1.59	.98	1.06	1.75	2.24	1.87	1.82	Fairly close.
Temporary disabilities	41.38	33.56	21.30	24.04	30.55	28.72	30.22	
Employment index	99.3	83.1	69.4	55.0	64.3	82.0	92.7	
Woolen goods:								
Frequency rate	15.13	11.09	[1]8.58	15.41	15.66	15.63	15.50	
Deaths	.03	.02	.13	.06	.05	.05	.04	
Permanent disabilities	.36	.20	.34	.68	1.04	1.13	1.12	Fairly close.
Temporary disabilities	14.74	10.87	8.21	14.67	14.57	14.44	14.34	
Employment index	82.6	67.2	67.1	56.0	71.4	65.7	86.5	

[1] These rates appear to be distorted, apparently due to erratic fluctuations in the reporting sample for 1931.
[4] Employment index for lumber and millwork.

In 3 industries, the trends of frequency rates and the employment index either moved in the same direction or closely followed the entire group pattern. In 12 more, the degree of relationship was not so marked, but nevertheless close. In 10 industries the relationship was fairly close, but still definitely apparent. In 4 industries, however, there appeared to be no relationship at all.

The movements of the frequency rates in a number of industries require special comment. In the fertilizer industry, the trend of employment followed the group trend until 1935, when the index for the fertilizer industry dropped, while that for all manufacturing industries continued upward. The frequency rate, however, increased from 31.23 in 1930 to 48.54 in 1934, increasing each year over the rate of the preceding year. In 1935, however, the rate decreased to 46.73. In 1934, both the frequency rate and the employment index reached their highest points since 1930, when the employment index stood at 111.0. Just why there should have been this constant increase in the frequency rate—an increase of about 55 percent—from 1930 to 1934 is not clear. Perhaps it is to be attributed to the high seasonality of the industry, with employees hired, as a rule, only for a relatively short busy season. Under such conditions increased labor forces seem to result in increased numbers of injuries out of proportion to the increases in employment.

The logging and sawmill industry had a very similar experience. Regardless of the upward and downward fluctuations in employment, the injury frequency rate moved steadily upward, from 46.79 in 1929 to 68.28 in 1935, an increase of about 45 percent, or 21 additional disabling injuries for every million hours worked. Again, as in the fertilizer industry, this is an instance in which a considerable portion of the industry's activities are highly seasonal. It should be noted also that the frequency rate of injuries was higher in this industry than in any other industry listed.

Although the frequency rate of the boot and shoe industry was generally low, it nevertheless indicates a fairly steady upward trend during the period from 1930 to 1935. With only one exception, 1933, the rate increased steadily from 6.95 in 1930 to 10.57 in 1934, decreasing slightly to 10.18 in 1935. As will be noted, the increases occurred in permanent as well as temporary disabilities.

In the automobile industry, on the other hand, the trend in the frequency rate was generally in a downward direction, decreasing from 22.76 in 1929 to 10.77 in 1935, a decrease of more than half, much of it occurring in 1935.

An exactly contrary experience was that of the petroleum-refining industry. Except for a decrease in employment in 1935, the employment-index pattern resembles that of the composite manufacturing-

industries group. But the frequency rate, which stood at 31.36 in 1930, decreased steadily to a low point of 10.46 in 1935—a decrease in the 6-year period of nearly 67 percent, or 21 fewer disabling injuries for every million man-hours worked. There is a good reason to attribute this highly satisfactory experience to careful, continuous, and comprehensive safety work on the part of management in this industry. Perhaps an additional reason lies in the fact that the industry did not suffer the extreme swings of employment found in a considerable number of the other industries.

The shipbuilding industry, for which the employment-index pattern conforms fairly well to that of the entire group, also shows an almost constant decline in the frequency rate from 1930 on. Dropping from 107.3 in 1930 to 56.8 in 1933, the employment index recovered to 76.5 in 1935. The frequency rates of industrial injuries for 1930 and 1933 were 29.66 and 19.32, respectively. But whereas the employment index increased for the next 2 years, the frequency rate continued to fall to 15.56 in 1935—a drop of nearly 50 percent.

A third industry in this group with constantly decreasing frequency rates is that producing automobile tires and rubber goods. Except for a slight rise in 1933, the rate for this industry decreased steadily from 25.19 in 1929 to 16.16 in 1935, a decrease of 9 injuries for every million hours worked.

Trend of Minor Injuries During Depression

It has already been mentioned that as the depression deepened, there was a consistent decrease in the percentage which disabilities of less than 8 days' duration formed of all temporary total injuries. There is a very strong probability that the decrease occurred most heavily in accidental injuries which otherwise would be classed in the 1, 2, or 3 days' disability groups. The statistical data utilized, however, do not permit of a nicer analysis of reported injuries than "1 week or less." As the data for 1929 are not available in sufficient detail, the period covered is from 1930 to 1935. It was also necessary to omit the iron and steel industry, as no detailed classification of temporary total disabilities was possible for this group.

In table 5 is shown for the entire group, as well as for each of the 28 industries, the percentage which these 1-week cases were of the total number of temporary total disabilities. The employment indexes have been computed with the average for the period 1923–25=100. To permit a direct comparison of the trend of 1-week cases with the trend of employment, both types of data were reduced to index num-

bers with the annual average for the period 1930–35=100. The two series, shown graphically in chart 2, are as follows:

	Index of 1-week cases	*Index of employment*
1930	99. 2	116. 7
1931	96. 6	95. 9
1932	88. 8	80. 5
1933	101. 8	89. 8
1934	104. 4	105. 5
1935	109. 7	111. 5

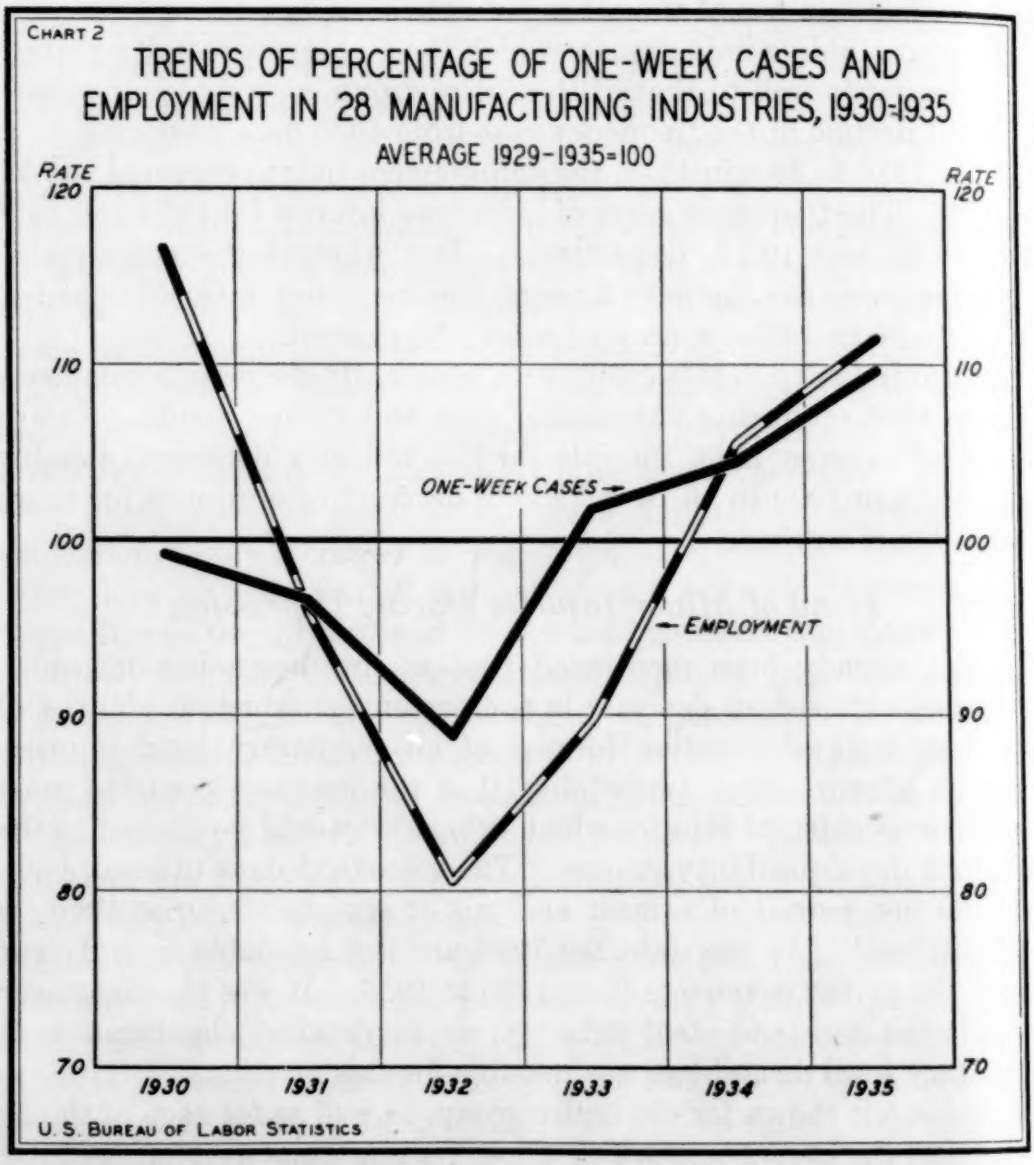


TABLE 5.—*Percent of Temporary Total Disabilities in 28 Manufacturing Industries, Reported as of 1 Week or Less, 1930–35* [1]

Item	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	Correlation of direction of trend
All industries:							
Cases of temporary total disability	38,721	36,800	25,907	31,485	61,786	62,717	Very close.
Percent first week	38	37	34	39	40	42	
Employment index [2]	85.3	70.1	58.8	65.6	77.1	81.4	
Agricultural implements:							
Cases of temporary total disability	476	222	114	208	317	613	Fairly close.
Percent first week	41	37	36	31	39	48	
Employment index	110.7	62.3	36.8	39.6	68.8	100.2	
Automobiles:							
Cases of temporary total disability	1,103	982	673	996	1,193	1,054	Close.
Percent first week	29	30	20	38	41	40	
Employment index	80.3	71.0	60.5	60.6	94.5	110.4	
Automobile tires and rubber goods:							
Cases of temporary total disability	1,781	1,334	1,054	1,289	1,456	1,342	Very close.
Percent first week	38	29	27	31	36	24	
Employment index	85.9	73.9	67.6	79.1	88.4	85.6	
Boots and shoes:							
Cases of temporary total disability	663	1,050	898	789	678	605	Poor.
Percent first week	37	41	38	48	42	45	
Employment index	90.2	85.3	84.5	89.8	94.1	93.1	
Brick, tile, and terra cotta:							
Cases of temporary total disability	1,177	1,365	676	769	652	633	Poor.
Percent first week	45	35	33	42	40	38	
Employment index	72.2	50.2	31.8	31.3	34.8	36.3	
Carpets and rugs:							Number of cases too small to justify conclusion.
Cases of temporary total disability	157	138	88	102	89	113	
Percent first week	48	30	36	36	31	50	
Employment index	74.2	67.5	52.9	62.8	69.1	82.2	
Chemicals:							
Cases of temporary total disability	581	350	240	336	472	565	Close.
Percent first week	36	32	25	39	39	38	
Employment index	99.5	85.1	76.0	93.3	114.9	113.7	
Cotton goods:							
Cases of temporary total disability	2,904	3,372	3,586	4,356	3,627	3,436	Very close.
Percent first week	41	36	35	41	44	52	
Employment index	80.7	74.5	67.1	85.9	91.2	87.8	
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies:							
Cases of temporary total disability	1,919	1,273	706	1,020	1,318	1,367	Poor.
Percent first week	31	23	28	31	39	36	
Employment index	107.1	80.9	60.6	58.8	72.5	80.6	
Fertilizers:							
Cases of temporary total disability	454	362	295	385	485	413	Close.
Percent first week	44	38	27	41	41	48	
Employment index	111.0	78.8	56.5	70.7	92.4	88.3	
Flour, feed, and other grain-mill products:							
Cases of temporary total disability	1,076	1,037	742	814	864	641	Very close.
Percent first week	47	45	42	42	49	45	
Employment index	73.9	68.1	65.7	69.2	78.2	76.9	
Foundry and machine-shop products:							
Cases of temporary total disability	4,245	3,064	1,752	2,264	2,666	2,892	Close.
Percent first week	41	35	34	42	39	40	
Employment index	94.2	69.7	51.1	54.6	70.4	76.9	
Furniture:							
Cases of temporary total disability	1,190	1,535	1,019	1,135	876	996	Very close.
Percent first week	51	46	35	50	51	56	
Employment index	89.0	73.7	54.7	61.0	62.4	70.2	
Glass:							
Cases of temporary total disability	1,681	1,483	1,105	1,470	1,496	1,694	Fairly close.
Percent first week	44	40	44	46	40	44	
Employment index	83.8	71.5	59.6	71.3	91.6	96.3	
Hardware:							
Cases of temporary total disability	227	230	134	203	202	194	Fairly close.
Percent first week	33	33	26	41	37	40	
Employment index	88.6	70.3	58.9	63.4	77.8	75.8	
Leather:							
Cases of temporary total disability	1,027	739	638	836	697	816	Close.
Percent first week	44	41	36	45	44	45	
Employment index	84.6	76.9	68.8	80.7	90.5	94.9	
Logging and sawmills:							
Cases of temporary total disability	3,960	5,002	2,820	3,248	2,793	3,309	Fairly close.
Percent first week	25	29	28	31	28	29	
Employment index	67.6	41.1	31.7	39.6	45.0	46.4	

[1] 1929 omitted because the necessary break-down is not available.
[2] For all employment indexes, the average for the period 1923–25=100.

TABLE 5.—*Percent of Temporary Total Disabilities in 28 Manufacturing Industries, Reported as of 1 Week or Less, 1930–35*—Continued

Item	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	Correlation of direction of trend
Planing mills:							
Cases of temporary total disability	1,030	808	580	513	437	546	Poor—very close inverse relation from 1932 on.
Percent first week	39	40	32	42	41	35	
Employment index [1]	64.4	51.1	35.0	33.2	35.4	41.8	
Machine tools:							
Cases of temporary total disability	637	209	123	161	239	324	Close.
Percent first week	37	27	24	34	31	38	
Employment index	126.0	74.7	42.1	44.9	73.0	93.2	
Paper and pulp:							
Cases of temporary total disability	2,429	2,729	2,183	2,602	2,494	2,600	Fairly close.
Percent first week	38	39	35	37	34	35	
Employment index	102.5	89.5	81.9	89.0	103.8	107.6	
Petroleum refining:							
Cases of temporary total disability	2,226	1,579	767	868	649	510	Fairly close.
Percent first week	43	48	35	38	27	35	
Employment index	124.9	106.2	98.7	106.5	118.3	116.7	
Pottery:							
Cases of temporary total disability	304	274	214	303	258	252	Very close.
Percent first week	44	35	33	37	41	45	
Employment index	82.9	72.3	58.6	63.2	72.2	72.6	
Shipbuilding:							
Cases of temporary total disability	1,171	1,363	581	362	354	403	Poor.
Percent first week	27	49	30	40	36	37	
Employment index	107.3	83.0	66.7	56.8	71.7	76.5	
Slaughtering and meat packing:							
Cases of temporary total disability	4,266	4,002	3,205	3,786	5,039	3,152	Close.
Percent first week	43	43	38	39	44	52	
Employment index	92.1	84.1	80.6	89.3	105.7	84.3	
Stamped and enameled ware:							
Cases of temporary total disability	321	563	330	351	319	359	Poor—but close inverse correlation.
Percent first week	34	42	42	40	37	43	
Employment index	106.3	85.4	79.5	97.2	119.4	132.2	
Steam fittings, apparatus, and supplies:							
Cases of temporary total disability	321	268	152	152	225	319	Poor.
Percent first week	40	26	29	31	39	46	
Employment index	78.3	67.1	47.4	51.6	49.6	54.8	
Stoves:							
Cases of temporary total disability	747	636	380	718	688	672	Very close.
Percent first week	36	35	32	38	45	45	
Employment index	83.1	69.4	55.0	64.3	82.0	92.7	
Woolen goods:							
Cases of temporary total disability	619	919	916	1,229	1,011	1,241	Close.
Percent first week	41	42	43	46	41	48	
Employment index	67.2	67.1	56.0	71.4	65.7	86.5	

[1] Employment index is for lumber and millwork.

The two series moved in the same downward and upward direction in each of the 6 years. When the employment index went down, the index of 1-week cases went down, and when the employment index moved up, the index of 1-week cases moved up. When the employment index was at its lowest point, the index of 1-week cases was at its lowest point.

An analysis of table 5 shows that this relationship is found for a very heavy percentage of the individual industries, indicating that the phenomenon was general. There are decided differences between the experiences of individual industries, as one would expect. In the furniture industry, for instance, the proportion of 1-week cases was high, indicating that about half of all temporary total disabilities were due to minor injuries. In logging and sawmills, on the other hand, the percentage of 1-week cases was low, indicating a preponderance of more serious temporary total disabilities. In spite of all

these differences, however, the analysis reveals that out of the 28 industries, 20 showed definite trend relationships between percent of 1-week cases and employment. In seven industries the relationship was too erratic to permit any conclusion, and in one industry the number of injuries were too few to justify a conclusion.

It therefore appears that the fluctuation of the percentage which 1-week disability cases were of the entire number of temporary total disabilities was not at random, but that it followed a fairly definite pattern, which closely resembles that of movements in employment in these industries.

Is there any logical reason why there should have been a smaller percentage of temporary disabilities of a minor-disability character when employment was low, and a higher percentage when employment was up? Is there any logical reason why there should have been the close relationship in direction and timing?

The answer to these questions must be in the negative. There seems to be no logical reason why there should be this relationship. Nor does there seem to be any logical reason for the definite downward and upward movement of the percentage of 1-week cases. No matter how many temporary injuries there are, no matter how the number varies, the percentage of minor injuries should not vary markedly from year to year, except for random fluctuations. Out of a given number of temporary total injuries, the percentage of 1-week cases should remain approximately the same from year to year. What variations there are should not follow any definite pattern.

What, then, accounts for the trend in the percentage of 1-week cases? One explanation is that there actually are fewer minor injuries during the depression because the less experienced workers have been laid off, and that there are proportionately more minor injuries during periods of increased industrial activity due to the accretion of inexperienced workers. This explanation, however, does not appear to be feasible. True, there are less industrial injuries as the less experienced help is laid off, and more as new help is added. But the actual distribution of disabilities according to severity should not be affected. Experienced help should have fewer accidental injuries—but why should proportionally more of the injuries which do result be of a more severe character?

The most logical solution to the problem appears to be that many minor injuries are not reported by workers, or in any case are withheld from reporting to State authorities. Failure to make such reports are of course reflected in statistics of accidental injuries, for if injuries are concealed by injured workers, they do not reach the State authorities from whom the statistics under discussion are obtained; nor, for that matter, do they all reach the proper officials in private manufacturing establishments.

Why should there have been this withholding of reports? The answer to this question again goes back to the effects of the depression. When jobs are scarce, and many employees are working only part time and generally at reduced wage rates, there is every reason why a worker with a minor injury should keep on working. One reason is that he cannot afford to jeopardize his own job. Further, with decreased earnings, resulting from decreased hourly rates or reduced working hours or both, he needs every dollar he can earn. Finally, very few States provide workmen's compensation benefits for disabilities lasting less than a week, and when they do, the compensation allowed is generally less than the earnings lost. The worker, therefore, either goes along as well as he can at his regular job, or, if he has a sympathetic foreman, may be shifted to another job which he may be able to perform in spite of his injury. But when the employment situation is easier, when hours and wage rates are more normal, he is inclined to take time out if injured, even though it be only 1 or 2 days. At the same time, employees, particularly those recently added, may not receive as sympathetic consideration from supervisors and may be compelled to take time off until able to continue the tasks for which they are employed so as to maintain the speed of operations.

The understatement of disabling injuries in statistics covering the depression years is estimated to have been at least 8 percent during the worst depression year of 1932.[5] The round figure of 10 percent seems more nearly correct, and even so is believed to be a conservative estimate. The following frequency rates, corrected for the given percentage of 1-week cases and the constant of 39 percent, are given in comparison with the percentages of such cases as computed directly from the reported data:

	Frequency rate	
	Computed	*Corrected*
1930	23. 08	23. 46
1931	18. 85	19. 44
1932	19. 55	21. 07

[5] The figure of 8 percent was arrived at by assuming that, for the group as a whole, 39 percent of all temporary total disabilities normally would be in the 1-week group. This is the figure for 1928, when the employment index stood at 98.7, and occurs again for 1933, a year which combines low employment with the first upward impulse under N. R. A.

POWER FARMING AND LABOR DISPLACEMENT IN THE COTTON BELT, 1937

PART 1.—NORTHWEST TEXAS

By PAUL S. TAYLOR,[1] *of the University of California*

FARMS in the best lands of the Cotton Belt are beginning to be mechanized and to be industrialized. A process begun a couple of decades ago along and beyond its western fringes is now penetrating some of the most important areas in the entire belt. The old system based on tenant and cropper families on small family-size farms is in process of profound transformation. In its place is appearing an industrialized form of agriculture employing wage laborers, some of whom live on the farm, but many, if not most, of whom live in the towns. Large-scale mechanized farming, with labor paid by the day or hour; labor swept off the land and into the towns from which it is drawn back only during seasonal peaks; labor which is increasingly mobile and without ties to the land—this pattern is incipient in the Cotton Belt. Even on farms where operations remain in the hands of working families on the land, the acreage, the capital equipment, and the seasonal wage labor bill per farm are all increasing.

There has been much talk about labor displacement in the future when the mechanical cotton picker is perfected. The fact is that heavy displacement of farmers and laborers, as a result of increasing mechanization, is already in progress in several important cotton areas. The cause, however, is not the picker machine, but the tractor.

This study emphasizes power farming, which recently has become disturbing both to farmers and to farm laborers, many of whom are exposed to displacement. The use of tractors, particularly the all-purpose, pneumatic-tired type, is spreading. It is accelerating profound changes in the rural structure, some of which had already received impetus from other causes such as drought and depression. Particular attention was given to sections of the Texas Panhandle and the Mississippi and Arkansas deltas where change is most evident. Reconnaissance was extended over southwestern Oklahoma, the Black Wax Prairie of Texas, and portions of Georgia and the Carolinas, in order to obtain some idea of the manner and extent to which the changes so plainly evident in the Panhandle and delta sections are affecting other cotton areas. Emphasis here is wholly upon areas of change.

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[1] Based on researches on the security of agricultural workers in the Cotton Belt (June and July 1937) as consultant, Social Security Board. The author wishes to acknowledge the critical assistance of specialists in several Government bureaus, especially that of Thomas C. Blaisdell, Jr., of the Social Security Board. The author alone is responsible for statements in the article.

This article consists of a series of reports substantially as they were written in the field, supplemented by additional data and commentaries to provide unity and perspective. The study, therefore, is in the nature of an interim contribution of field observations on some rural trends which are significant for those who are concerned with formulation of thought and policy on labor and tenant problems rooted in agriculture. This is not a comprehensive report on the present extent, the rate, the ultimate limits, and the full social and economic effects of mechanization of cotton production. It does not present average conditions in the Cotton Belt. It is highly selective. Its observations are intended primarily to point out the *direction* of change in important areas and the labor patterns which are being developed.

Observations were made with the object of delineating the cotton workers' insecurity arising from mechanization and its national repercussions, irrespective of the agencies—Federal or State—which may ultimately prove best suited to deal with particular phases. For this reason observations on labor displacement, refugee movement to the west coast, migration to towns and northern industry, and agricultural and relief programs are all included as relevant to the broader problem of the security of low-income workers in agriculture.

Mechanization in the Western Dry Area

The level or gently rolling topography of the western dry cotton area, including western portions of Texas and Oklahoma, is well suited to operations on a larger scale than in the Piedmont and most other sections of the Cotton Belt, and many students of agriculture have long felt that mechanization would run its course first and most completely in this area. Farms are large here. The one-man one-mule methods of older cotton sections with one-half row cultivator are replaced by four- and six-mule teams with two-row cultivators. Cotton strippers of the sled type were first employed here. However, it is not expected that picker machines of the type now being perfected will be used in the western dry area, because of climate and the growth habits of cotton.[2] But the displacement anticipated from a mechanized picker is already occurring. It is caused by a complex of forces, of which the latest and now the most active is adoption of the tractor and the four-row cultivator.

The Texas Panhandle

The Texas Panhandle has been scourged by successive years of severe drought and depressed cotton prices. These factors, and even

[2] Works Progress Administration. National Research Project. Mechanical Cotton Picker, by Roman L. Horne and Eugene G. McKibben. Philadelphia, 1937, p. x.

the public measures to relieve rural distress, have profoundly affected the social structure. Now the tractor is adding its impetus to the forces altering the landscape and changing the social scene. On the landscape are the marks of farms growing bigger and fewer [3]—abandoned houses and rural depopulation, tenant farmers reduced to the status of wage laborers, thrown on relief, and scattered to other districts. Landlords clash with their tenants over the crop-adjustment checks, though not openly or in organized fashion.[4] The landlords force tenants off the place, then use the increased cash income resulting from the agricultural adjustment program and funds received for the sale of their own livestock as payments on tractors, so that more and more tenants "can't get a farm," and people say "The farmall is ruining our country."[5] The driving force of mechanization, like drought and depression before it, is already expelling families who load all their household possessions and children in the car, and flee half-way across the country. These are not just "croppers," but yeoman farmers—tenants on thirds and fourths; not only Negroes, but white Texans as well.

Hall and Childress Counties, Texas

Because the effects of power farming are so clearly evident in this area, Hall and Childress Counties were selected for special study. These counties are located at the extreme southeastern tip of the Texas Panhandle. They lie just below the "cap" rock, and are "Great Plains" country in physical characteristics.

Cattle ranches were established at least as early as 1881 in Hall County, and probably slightly earlier in Childress County. The first cotton was ginned in Hall County in 1893—nine bales, according to local reports. Settlement by farmers eager for cheap cotton land was evidently rapid, and the breaking of the sod followed. The Hall County Herald for September 20, 1894, stated: "They say the farmers there (Parker County) are getting dicouraged of raising 5-cent cotton on $30 land when they can raise just as much in Hall County on $5 land."

The farms of these counties are operated typically by tenant farmers on thirds and fourths, who own teams and tools, and possess managerial capacity. Two-thirds of the farms (66.7 percent in Hall County and 64.7 percent in Childress County in 1935) are operated by tenants (table 1). Only a small minority of the farms (one-eighth

[3] Cotton was being produced increasingly under large-scale conditions even before tractors were introduced in numbers. Climate, topography, and use of more capital equipment per man made this possible. (National Bureau of Economic Research, Bulletin 67, Nov. 29, 1937, pp. 19-20.) Technical Progress and Agricultural Depression, by Eugen Altschul and Frederick Strauss.

[4] The Southern Tenant Farmers' Union originated in Arkansas under similar circumstances.

[5] The term "farmall" is used by people in this area to refer broadly to all-purpose tractors of whatever brand, not to single out the product of a particular company.

in Hall County and one-seventh in Childress County) are operated by sharecroppers, working on halves and furnishing only their own labor and that of their families. Wage laborers have always been few, except during cotton harvest, when most of the crop is harvested (either snapped or picked) by contract labor paid by the hundredweight.

TABLE 1.—*Farms and Farm Operators in Hall and Childress Counties, Tex., 1930 and 1935*

Item	Hall County			Childress County		
	1930	1935	Percent of change	1930	1935	Percent of change
Number of farms	1,835	1,521	−17.1	1,348	1,334	−1.0
Farm operators, by tenure:						
Full owners	410	[1] 424	+3.4	385	376	−2.3
Part owners	47	68	+44.7	53	84	+58.5
Managers	10	15	+50.0	15	10	−33.3
Tenants	1,368	[1] 1,014	−25.9	895	[1] 864	−3.5
Average size of farms	211.4	308.7	+46.0	292.1	299.1	+2.4
All land in farms	387,963	469,481	+21.0	393,692	399,048	+1.4

[1] In 1935 there were 9 colored croppers and 1 colored full owner in Hall County. There were 5 colored croppers in Childress County. In 1935 there were 184 sharecroppers in Hall County and 190 in Childress County.

The permanent population of these counties is almost entirely native American white. During good cotton harvests migratory Mexicans, Negroes, and American whites from north, east, and south Texas, from Oklahoma, and from a few more distant States help to harvest the crop.

RECENT DROUGHT AND DEPRESSION

Rainfall is undependable. Heavy crop failures have characterized most of the past 5 or 6 years. In 1934 crops failed on 97,177 acres in Childress County and 79,470 acres in Hall County. During the 5-year period 1925–29 the two counties ginned an annual average of 99,000 bales. During 1930–36 average ginnings dropped to less than one-half, or only 48,500 bales, and as low as 12,500 bales in 1934 and 26,500 bales in 1936.

Economic depression, too, has dealt severe blows to these counties in common with other cotton areas. Between 1931 and 1933, the farm-price index of cotton and cottonseed stood at the unprecedentedly low points of 63, 47, and 64 percent of the pre-war base. Value of farm real estate in terms of the pre-war average fell successively to 96, 83, 88, and 91 percent in Texas during 1932–35, and 94, 76, 83, and 86 percent in Oklahoma. Values in Hall and Childress Counties were doubtless well below the averages of either State, owing to their location in the area of severe drought.

DEPOPULATION

Both Hall and Childress Counties are being depopulated. In view of the natural and economic causes of distress just cited, this is not surprising. Now the spread of tractor farming must be added as another major factor.

Between 1930 and 1935 farm population declined approximately 24 percent in Hall County and 19 percent in Childress County. The rate of rural decline was even more rapid during the past year or two, according to the scholastic census. With coincidence of severe crop failure and accelerated mechanization, the number of rural scholastics (children aged 6 to 17) fell between 1936 and 1937 by 15 percent in Childress County and by 13.8 percent in Hall County (see table 2). The number of scholastics in Childress County as a whole decreased 21.5 percent during the 7 years between 1930 and 1937, or an average of approximately 3 percent per year. The decline during the past 2 years in Hall County averaged only 2.6 percent, but would have been larger except for an increase of school children from outside the county in 1936, resulting from the establishment of a veterans' C. C. C. camp at the county seat.

TABLE 2.—*Scholastic Census of Children Aged 6 to 17 Years*

CHILDRESS COUNTY, TEX.

Item	1930		1933		1936		1937		Percentage change	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	7 years, 1930–37	1 year, 1936–37
Rural	2,657	58.5	2,256	53.5	2,020	50.4	1,708	47.9	−35.7	−15.5
Childress (city)	1,884	41.5	1,963	46.5	1,987	49.6	1,857	52.1	−1.4	−6.6
Total	4,541	100.0	4,219	100.0	4,007	100.0	3,565	100.0	−21.5	+11.0

HALL COUNTY, TEX.[1]

Item	1935		1936		1937		Percentage change	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	2 years, 1935–37	1 year, 1936–37
Rural	2,571	70.0	2,673	69.3	2,305	66.1	−10.3	−13.8
Memphis (city)	1,104	30.0	1,184	30.7	1,180	33.9	+6.9	−.3
Total	3,675	100.0	3,857	100.0	3,485	100.0	−5.2	−9.6

[1] Establishment of a veterans' C. C. C. camp at Memphis in 1936 increased the Memphis and county numbers of scholastics beginning with that year. One rural district, which had 46 scholastics in 1936, was consolidated with Memphis in 1937, minimizing the apparent decline in the city, and increasing the apparent rural decline.

Recent acceleration in rate of decline under stress of crop failure and spreading mechanization is shown by the fact that the decline in scholastic census, approximating roughly the decline in total

population, reached 11 percent in Childress County and 9.6 percent in Hall County during the past single year.

School census figures reveal the population movement within the counties during these recent years. Until 1936 the brunt of depopulation was borne almost entirely by the rural portions of both counties. The migration of people from the countryside to the towns more than offset the losses of the towns until that date. Now the towns as well as the rural sections are losing population, although at a much slower rate. The rural portion of Childress County has declined 35.7 percent since 1930, while the county seat lost only 1.4 percent of its school population. Indeed, from 1930 to 1936 it gained population, principally by accretions from the countryside, but during the past year (1936-37) even the city lost 6.6 percent of its scholastics.

The same process has been taking place in Hall County, as the statistics, despite the interfering factors noted in the footnote to table 2, make amply clear.

DISPLACEMENT OF ANIMAL POWER ON FARMS

Horses and mules have always furnished the motive power on farms in Hall and Childress Counties. Between 1930 and 1935, however, farmers were slowly replacing them with tractors, as a few had done even before 1929. Since 1935, the rate at which farmers have been disposing of their horses and mules has been astonishingly rapid (see table 3).

TABLE 3.—*Number of Horses and Mules in Childress and Hall Counties, 1930 and 1935*

Year	Childress County		Hall County	
	Horses	Mules	Horses	Mules
1930	3,175	4,733	3,332	5,771
1935	2,847	3,625	2,887	4,614
Loss	328	1,108	445	1,157

In Hall County, the net loss of horses and mules during the 5 years, 1930 to 1935, was 1,602. This represented a decline of 17.5 percent for the entire period, or an average of only 3.5 percent per year. According to the Memphis (Tex.) Democrat of February 5, 1937, recent displacement of animal power has been much heavier.

> It has been variously estimated by stockmen, farmers, and implement dealers that from 750 to 1,000 mules and horses have been shipped out of Hall County within the past 12 months. Most of the mules are shipped from here to Mississippi and Tennessee, where they are used in industrial farm work.

On the basis of these estimates, the number of horses and mules declined between 10 and 13 percent in a single year, or about treble the average rate of decline during the preceding 5 years. Clearly, the

sale of horses and mules off the farms is continuing at an accelerated rate.

INCREASING USE OF TRACTOR POWER ON FARMS

The past 2 years particularly have witnessed rapid increase in the use of tractors in Childress and Hall Counties. No census data are available since 1930, when 94 and 90 farm tractors, respectively, were reported. The annual numbers of recent tractor sales in Childress were estimated by an implement dealer as follows: 1934–35, 10; 1935–36, 20; 1936–37, 105. Similar estimates for Hall County were: 1935, 100; 1936, 160; 1937, 200. These figures are to be regarded only as indications of trend. The Memphis (Tex.) Democrat in February 1937 described the rapid influx of tractors:

> Keeping pace with the mule exodus here the past few months have seen an influx of tractors. Six carloads of tractors were unloaded in Memphis alone during the month of January. At least 150 tractors were distributed over this immediate area through Memphis implement channels during the past year.

This tremendous acceleration in use of tractors has all come since lighter, cheaper, pneumatic-tired tractors have been placed on the market. Lower cost, lower gasoline and oil consumption, better traction in the sandy soils of Hall and Childress Counties, which resisted earlier heavy models, freedom of movement on public roads, and the rising cost of feed because of drought, have all played a part. Farmers have been enabled to purchase tractors even after several years of bad crops because they have received Government crop-adjustment checks, and because they can trade in their mules and horses at good prices.

DISPLACEMENT OF TENANT FARMERS

The fast-growing use of tractors has caused heavy displacement of tenant farmers. The continuance of tractor purchases will force more off the land. Each managing tenant on thirds who is displaced represents normally the scrapping of a family farm operator. The displacement of sharecropper families, which is likewise occurring, represents displacement of a laborer who receives payment on shares in lieu of wages. The "family farms" which remain after mechanization generally are enlarged in acreage and capital equipment, and are more commercialized. On larger holdings, even the "family farm" structure frequently disappears completely, and is replaced by a single large-scale industrialized operation using day laborers.[6]

[6] The clear prospect of more extensive mechanization and industrialization of Great Plains agriculture in the Cotton Belt does not imply that no other type of farming will remain. "Undoubtedly mechanization will progress, and where the application of large machinery proves profitable a further concentration of acreage will take place. But the advantages that the perfecting of small-scale machinery may bring will increase the resistance of the medium-size farms, so that even in the Great Plains they may survive." (National Bureau of Economic Research, Bulletin 67, Nov. 29, 1937, p. 14: Technical Progress and Agricultural Depression.)

Displacement of tenants occurs from several causes, whose effective operation is clearly evident and recognized by all classes in Hall and Childress Counties. Among these causes are the following:

1. Landlords, during the past 2 years, are increasingly taking over the operation of their own farms as a last measure of defense against loss of ownership. They have been impelled to do this by successive years of low prices and of crop shortage caused by drought, which have increased the difficulty of meeting taxes and interest on mortgages, which customarily carry a lien on the landlord's quarter of the cotton crop. Individual landlords and even loan corporations which have foreclosed on the mortgagors are taking over farm operation in this manner. Each time this occurs, at least one tenant is displaced.

The large landlords appear to have taken the lead, causing most of the displacement. On February 5, 1937, the Memphis (Tex.) Democrat stated that "The tractor is fast taking the place of the mule on the larger farms of Hall County." Smaller landlords, and even tenants who can finance it, are joining the move to mechanize farms and increase their size, with the result that more families are forced off the land.

2. The use of tractors greatly increases the area which one capable farmer can operate. Their introduction in the interest of economical operation, therefore, is rightly regarded as the major cause of displacement at the present time. Commonly, the landlord who purchases a tractor throws two 160-acre cotton farms operated by tenants into an operating unit, and lets both tenants go. Sometimes the rate of displacement is greater, rising to 8, 10, and even 15 families of tenants. The landlords either operate their own farms with their own labor or replace the tenants with a reduced number of wage laborers.

When tenants purchase tractors, they generally double the size of their farm, thus displacing another tenant. But most of the tractors are purchased by landlords, with somewhat higher average displacement resulting. One implement dealer reported from his records that out of 40 sales of new tractors, 32 had been made to landlords, and only 8, or 20 percent, had been made to tenants. This was regarded as representative of new machines, although purchase of used machines by tenants would raise somewhat their share of total tractor purchases.

3. The use of low-paid wage labor instead of tenants to drive tractors is the rule. This is a further measure of economy to landlords. The tenant who is unable to get another farm either becomes unemployed or he accepts employment in the reduced status of wage worker, driving a tractor. In Hall and Childress Counties, laborers usually receive only $1.25 a day when they work, and a house. Since the superior efficiency of tractor operation reduces the need of workers

on the land, a large part of the displaced tenants cannot even obtain regular farm work as tractor drivers.

The displacement of tenants was already in progress by 1935, especially in Hall County, where tenant farmers declined by one-quarter between 1930 and 1935. At the same time, full owners who operated their farms, increased 3.4 percent, part owners who operated their farms increased 44.7 percent, and the average size of farms rose from 211 to 308 acres, or 46 percent.

The same tendencies were operating in Childress County, but to a much less degree before 1935. Although part-owner operators increased by 58.5 percent and the average size of farm by 2.4 percent, the number of tenants declined by only 3.5 percent. The chief explanation of these differences between Hall and Childress Counties before 1935 are threefold: (1) More sandy soil in Childress County retarded the introduction of tractors longer so that their effects were registered only slightly before 1935; (2) the existence of wheat production in Childress County, which is practically absent from Hall County, had already made the average size of farms large in the former county; (3) the average annual production of cotton in Childress during these years was less than three-fourths the production of Hall County.

The heavy displacement of tenants was due to all the factors which have been noted, but not to abandonment of farms, for the acreage in farms increased in both Hall and Childress Counties, while tenants were leaving. During the past 2 years, displacement of cotton tenants has become even more rapid than before, and the role of the tractor in the process has increased in importance. The march of large-scale mechanized operation is in full swing in both counties.

No measure of the extent of displacement is available, nor of the force of each separate factor in causation. Two protesters charged that 420 tenant families were in process of displacement at the end of 1936 in Hall County alone. A tractor dealer estimated that from 50 to 100 families had already been moved off in Hall County in 1936. Probably the actual number displaced recently in Hall County is somewhere between these estimates. The loss of 354 tenant farmers before 1935, and the knowledge that tractor sales and displacements have been accelerating since 1935 makes it clear that the number is large.

The exact number already displaced in these two counties is of secondary importance to this report, however. Of primary importance are (1) the potential displacement, within the next 2 years, of a few hundred tenant families not already moved off who are in imminent danger of loss of their livelihood; and (2) the growth of wage labor and spread of an industrialized labor pattern on larger holdings.

WHERE DISPLACED TENANTS GO

Alternatives for the displaced tenants are few and bitter. Many go to the towns or move into farmhouses vacated by other displaced tenants, and fall upon W. P. A. or other forms of relief. The movement from farm to town largely explains why the towns have held, or even temporarily increased, their populations during a period of heavy rural depopulation. Some displaced tenants become wage laborers on farms, a sharp decline in status, especially for those who were operating tenants with teams and tools. It appears that few, if any, tenants remain as wage workers to drive tractors on the same farms which they occupied as tenants.

The present status of 26 families which left one rural school district in Childress County after 1929 was furnished by the school teacher of the district. Eight ex-tenant farmers were on relief in 1937, unable to find a farm. Three were wage laborers, three homesteaded in New Mexico, probably under difficult conditions with poor prospects, and two returned to "farms" or small holdings they already owned. Only 8 out of 24 families, or one-third, had obtained other farms to rent. One man who had been a laborer remained a laborer, and a merchant had fallen on relief.

No convincing evidence was received to indicate that tenants are selected for displacement on the basis of inferior ability, or shortness of tenure. The contrary was strongly asserted by many, and backed by specific citation. Enough was seen and heard of displaced tenants and of those retained as tractor drivers to believe that low farming capacity of tenants, at least of those displaced during the past couple of years, had no important relation to their displacement.

Many ex-tenants of Hall and Childress Counties emigrate to Arizona or California, there to work in the cities, or more often on the irrigated farms of those States. Fresh departures are taking place continually. Some families go to north Texas or other portions of that State, perhaps obtaining a submarginal farm, but most of them go west. Families sell all their possessions, even down to washing machines and old wrenches, buy a cheap used car and home-made trailer, load their bedding and stove on the trailer, and with the children in the car seek refuge by flight halfway across the country.

SOCIAL EFFECTS OF DISPLACEMENT

The course which tenant displacement is running full tilt manifests itself in a number of ways, some of which have already been discussed. The evidence of displacement is written clearly on the rural landscape, now strewn with abandoned tenants' houses, windows boarded, and fields cultivated close. In the towns, vacant houses are appearing in the moderate-rental districts, and rural slums are being built on the fringes.

Rural merchants and service occupations lose trade and fail. Drought is bad for them, but displacement is their finish. Town merchants, too, who cater to families of small incomes, are losing trade for the same reasons. Rural schools shrink in size and curriculum, teachers are dismissed, and rural churches languish. Mechanization of the farms and bad crops operate like good roads to the detriment of crossroads institutions and merchants.[7]

Those who have long been living at relief levels are becoming dispirited and hopeless. Large families are the rule among them, and relief wages of $22.80 a month are for many of them the verge of slow starvation. After experiencing this for a short time, many families emigrate.

Tenants who yet retain farms are starkly fearful that they may lose them and suffer the fate of the others. Open class conflict has not yet broken out, but the elements of it are present. So far, there is only discussion, some in newspapers and much around country stores and gas stations. The Memphis (Tex.) Democrat recorded last October the view of those who protest against displacement by landlords with tractors:

> * * * the large farm owner-operators are doing their farm work with tractors, dismissing the renters and leaving the rent houses on the farms vacant. * * * One farmer cites that the rent farmers who are displaced by power machinery will have to move to town and join the army of unemployed to be taken care of by the Government.

Conflict between landlords and tenants focuses generally on who shall receive the Government crop-adjustment money. This is so, not only because both parties are in hard circumstances, but also because this money often provides the means to buy the tractors which displace the tenants. Especially after exhaustion of financial resources by years of drought, this one cash resource becomes of critical importance and bitter struggle centers in it.[8]

Those landlords who displace their tenants have, of course, their defenders. A business woman explained:

> The landlord figures he owns the land and he leases to the Government. Mr. Landowner didn't put the tenants off the place, but a group of them raised such a fuss about the checks—and then they had to get off. I'd rather have some place to make a living than to go away, wouldn't you?

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[7] When tractors were invading the Wheat Belt of the Inland Empire of Washington in the twenties and early thirties, a general merchant's view was: "This movement toward power farming is damaging every small town in this section of the State. Towns which had a good volume of business a few years ago are now very dull. There are fewer farms and less people on them. A few years ago we had a heavy seasonal labor movement into this section. The harvest hands would come in about the 15th of July and stay through the greater part of the summer. Now the harvesting season is much shorter, and there is a smaller number of workers. Our sales of work shoes and work clothing of all kinds as well as foodstuffs have fallen off very heavily." (U. S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Commercial Survey of the PacificNorthwest, Domestic Commerce Series No. 5.)

[8] The view of tenant farmers was expressed by two men from Hall County in the Semiweekly Farm News, Dallas, Tex., January 19, 1937.

And even tenants sometimes showed understanding by interspersing their remarks with such phrases as "Of course, if I was a landlord I'd do the same thing." Doubtless, there is often much reluctance on the part of even these landlords who displace their tenants.

Whether the bitter cry of the tenants against the "greed" of the landlords is well-founded is of importance to administrators and framers of the farm program. In this area there have been protests against displacement in violation of the crop-reduction contracts, and in some cases restitution has been ordered. But of more lasting importance is the present reshaping, at great social cost, of the social organization and the future of Hall and Childress Counties by forces more impersonal than "greed." What is that future?

THE FUTURE

The rapid march of mechanization, with continued heavy displacement of tenant families, is inevitable under present conditions. The misery entailed by cutting the ground from under these families is enormous.

Large-scale tractor farming will support fewer operators, who will depend on wage laborers. The form of organization for cotton culture will probably approximate that now prevailing in Nueces County, Tex., which is one of the leading cotton-producing counties of the United States: Large farms, a few operators, a few laborers, their wages occasionally supplemented by very small allotments of cotton land to hold them on the farm the year round, hordes of migratory laborers for the harvest.

When the rains return, the displaced tenants will probably not come back to Hall and Childress Counties. The new methods of farming leave no place for them. Depopulation of these counties on the plains seems destined to be permanent. Perhaps it should be.

Not only will there be no place in these counties to reabsorb properly those who have left, but the next 2 or 3 years will witness the displacement of perhaps a couple of hundred or more families from the same small area, who will sink down to relief at home, or seek refuge elsewhere. Whether the drought continues or the rains come, the westward stream of the distressed will continue to be fed by victims of mechanization.

Adjacent Areas in North Texas

The same forces of drought, power farming, etc., which are producing heavy displacement of cotton tenants in Hall and Childress Counties are at work in a much larger surrounding cotton area. Especially to the east of Childress, many cotton farmers are not only introducing tractors, but also are shifting much of their plantings to wheat, in order to take advantage of winter rain which has persisted

to some degree even during the drought years. The effect on tenants is the same as mechanization of cotton farms—enlarged farms, fewer farmers, low labor requirements, displaced families.

The dark future faced by a tenant on thirds and fourths in Hardeman County is representative of the effects of this type of mechanization. He now operates a farm, but has been informed that it will not be available to him in 1938.

I may be a little late in writing you this letter, but was waiting to see what would be the outcome of my hunt for a place, and the outlook right now is that I will move to town and sell my teams, tools, and cows. I have hunted from Childress, Tex., to Haskell, Tex., a distance of 200 miles, and the answer is the same.

There is one man in this end of the country has rented 2,800 acres and is running it solely to wheat. And these farms are from one-quarter to one-half section in a place with house, barns, and windmill on nearly all of them.

Another man owning four farms with improvements on all of them has rented to one man two of these farms to sow in wheat, and the renter lives on one-half section farm of his own in the sand.

There are numerous business men and office holders in Quannah that are renting land to sow in wheat and paying a bonus on it.

I know one landowner who made two renters move for getting him to sign a waiver (giving them the tenant's share of the Government check) so they could borrow money to make this crop on.

So what is the little man going to do, the one that farms from 100 to 150 acres of land.

CONSUMPTION HABITS OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics is bringing to a conclusion two major studies of consumption, a study of the money disbursements of wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers in 55 cities, begun in the fall of 1934, for the purpose of revising and extending its indexes of the cost of goods purchased by this group, and an investigation of broader scope, undertaken in the winter of 1935–36, covering the consumer purchases of families of all income and occupational groups in 32 cities. The subject matter covered by the two studies is identical, but the groups covered and the methods of sampling and of analysis are different.

The office of the United States Commissioner of Labor Statistics has been making studies of the money receipts and disbursements of wage earners and salaried workers throughout the country since 1888. These studies have served a wide variety of purposes. The first was undertaken to secure information on wages and levels of living among American and European workers in the same industries. It covered a large number of cities, but did not present separate figures for any of the cities in which data were obtained. The studies made in 1903 and 1918 were initiated primarily for the purpose of providing weights for indexes of the cost of food, and of other goods purchased by families of wage earners and salaried workers. The first did not summarize the data secured in each city separately, but the second gives figures on sources of family income, on group expenditures and savings, on number of families living in dwellings of different size, on expenditures for fuel and light, and on certain housing facilities, for 12,096 families at 7 different income levels in 92 different cities.[1]

The study of the money receipts and disbursements of 506 Federal employees living in 5 cities, made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1928 for the Federal Personnel Classification Board, was limited to employees with salaries under $2,500. It was intended primarily to show how far the families of such employees are dependent on the incomes of supplementary earners, and to what extent their incomes meet their annual disbursements.[2]

An investigation of the consumer purchases of Federal employees living in Washington, D. C., was undertaken in the fall of 1933 in connection with the establishment of an index measuring changes in the cost of goods purchased by this group. Employees living as single

[1] U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bull. No. 357: Cost of Living in the United States. Washington, 1924 (pp. 18, 80, 276, 344).

[2] Monthly Labor Review, August 1929 (pp. 41–61), September 1929 (pp. 248–259), October 1929 (pp. 241–254) and November 1929 (pp. 1–10): Cost of Living of Federal Employees in Five Cities.

individuals and eating their meals at restaurants and boarding houses were chosen from among those with basic salaries from $1,000 to $1,500, and employees living in family groups were chosen from among families of five different types, one type with basic salaries from $1,000 to $1,500, three with basic salaries from $1,500 to $2,000, and one with basic salaries from $3,000 to $4,000.[3]

In the fall of 1934 the Bureau of Labor Statistics initiated a study of the money disbursements of wage earners and clerical workers for the purpose of revising and extending its cost-of-living indexes.[4]

This investigation covers all the details of the money receipts and disbursements of 16,000 families with incomes ranging from $500 to well over $3,000 for a few families with several earners. It also includes data on home ownership, housing facilities, and quantities of food, clothing, and furniture and furnishings purchased at different seasons of the year. Two summaries of the money disbursements of the groups covered in each city have been prepared which show (1) disbursements by groups of items at different income levels, and (2) at different economic levels. The second analysis takes account not only of the amount of money spent during the year for goods and services, but also the number, age, sex, and occupation of the persons for whom it is spent. The analyses of the details of the money disbursements in this study have been made by the different economic levels prevailing among the groups studied.

The studies of consumption made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics have been more extensive than those of any other agency studying urban families in the United States, but it is evident from these examples that they have not been of a nature which made possible an estimate of the purchasing power of all urban groups, or of the way that purchasing power is used. They have served specific

[3] Monthly Labor Review, July 1934 (pp. 213–244): Changes in Cost of Living of Federal Employees in the District of Columbia from 1928 to 1933.

[4] The cities with population over 50,000 included in this study (in the various geographic areas) are as follows: New York City (white and Negro families); in the North Atlantic area, Boston, Mass., Buffalo, N. Y., Johnstown, Pa., Lancaster, Pa., Manchester, N. H., Philadelphia, Pa. (white and Negro families), Pittsburgh, Pa. (white and Negro families), Portland, Maine, Rochester, N. Y., Scranton, Pa., Springfield, Mass.; in the East North Central area, Cincinnati, Ohio (white and Negro families), Cleveland, Ohio, Columbus, Ohio, Detroit, Mich., Grand Rapids, Mich., Indianapolis, Ind. (white and Negro families), Lansing, Mich., Milwaukee, Wis.; in the West North Central area, Denver, Colo., Kansas City, Mo., Kans. (white and Negro families), Minneapolis-St. Paul, Minn., St. Louis, Mo. (white and Negro families), Salt Lake City, Utah; Southern area, Baltimore, Md. (white and Negro families), Birmingham, Ala. (white and Negro families), Dallas, Tex., Houston, Tex. (white other than Mexican and Mexican), Jackson, Miss. (white and Negro families), Jacksonville, Fla. (white families), Louisville, Ky. (white and Negro families), Memphis, Tenn. (white and Negro families), Mobile, Ala. (white and Negro families), New Orleans, La. (white and Negro families), Norfolk, Va. (white and Negro families), Richmond, Va., (white and Negro families); in the Pacific area, Los Angeles, Calif. (white other than Mexican and Mexican), Sacramento, Calif., San Diego, Calif., San Francisco-Oakland, Calif., Seattle, Wash.

With the cooperation of various State authorities correlated studies of the money disbursements of wage earners and clerical workers have been made in the following cities under 50,000 population: (1) in New Hampshire, Berlin, Claremont, Concord, Conway, Dover, Keene, Laconia, Littleton, Nashua, Portsmouth; (2) in Michigan, Marquette; (3) in California, Modesto; and (4) in Nevada, Reno.

Summaries of the data secured in this investigation have appeared in the Monthly Labor Review for March 1936, May 1936, June 1936, September 1936, December 1936, January 1937, June 1937, and September 1937. The analyses of the data secured in this investigation are practically complete.

purposes, but the funds allotted to them have not made possible their extension to the large sections of the community not touched by the immediate problems under consideration.

The coordinated study of consumer purchases which was undertaken for the Works Progress Administration by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Bureau of Home Economics, in cooperation with the National Resources Committee and the Central Statistical Board, in January 1936 is broader in scope than any of the studies of consumption which have preceded it.

The plan for this investigation was built upon the long experience of both the Department of Labor and the Department of Agriculture in securing consumption data from individual families, and upon specific suggestions for a study of consumption according to incomes made by a committee of the Social Science Research Council in 1929.[5]

The present study of consumer purchases differs from those previously undertaken, not only in its inclusion of all income groups and occupational classes, but also in that it is designed to cover a sample sufficiently large to allow for comparison between different sections of the country; between urban and rural communities; between varying degrees of urbanization; between families at different income levels; and, within any given income level, between families of different composition and occupation. It will provide the nearest approach to a complete picture of American levels of living which has yet been attempted.

Information has been secured on income, family size and composition, type of dwelling, and expenditures for housing for families of all types and of all nativity and color groups. Data on the distribution of total family expenditures among specific goods and services, and on savings and investments, have been limited to native-born families including husband and wife not having received relief during the year covered by the study. The extension of the study of expenditures to cover the purchases of foreign-born families, families on relief, and families not including husband and wife, in such a way as to provide results capable of clear-cut analysis would have required an allocation of funds, and of personnel, larger than seemed practicable within the time available for the investigation.

The plan of the study will make possible for the first time a comparison of the spending habits of families of given size and composition from one income level to another, from country to city, from city to city, and from region to region. The schedules used in all the cities covered in the investigation by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Bureau of Home Economics are practically identical. For the rural areas certain modifications of both the schedule and the method of

[5] Social Science Research Council. Consumption According to Incomes. A suggested plan for an inquiry into the economic and social well-being of the American people. 45 pp. September 1929. (Mimeographed.)

sampling were necessary in order to meet the different conditions imposed by country life, but the information collected in city and country is as nearly comparable as it was possible to make it.

The coordinated studies of consumer purchases by urban and rural familes cover the populations of 2 metropolitan communities; 6 large cities averaging 300,000 inhabitants; 14 middle-sized cities of 50,000 to 75,000; 29 smaller cities from 10,000 to 20,000; 140 villages; and 64 farm counties.[6]

In selecting the data to be secured in this investigation, and the analyses to be made, consideration has been given to the different interests which may be served by a study of consumer purchases The information obtained will be valuable to scientific groups studying problems of taxation, tariff, social security, consumer protection, or wage adjustments, and to legislative and administrative bodies in Federal, State, and city governments. It will shed light on the relative abilities of farm and city to absorb one another's products, and the manner in which that capacity changes as rural and urban incomes change. It will also supply the needs of groups of organized workers which have been requesting data for use in wage negotiations which would show differences in the levels of living of rural and of urban workers, in cities of different size and in different parts of the country. Agricultural and business groups have been in need of data on consumer demand which could be used both in planning current production and distribution and in long range policy-making. Bankers and Government agencies concerned with banking have wanted information on habits of saving, of investing, and of borrowing at different economic

[6] The cities included in the study are as follows:

Bureau of Labor Statistics

Metropolises:
- New York.
- Chicago.

Large cities:
- Providence, R. I.
- Columbus, Ohio.
- Atlanta, Ga.
- Omaha, Nebr.
- Denver, Colo.
- Portland, Oreg.

Middle-size cities:
- Muncie, Ind.
- New Castle, Pa.
- Springfield, Ill.
- Haverhill, Mass.
- New Britain, Conn.
- Columbia, S. C.
- Mobile, Ala.
- Dubuque, Iowa.
- Springfield, Mo.
- Butte, Mont.
- Pueblo, Colo.
- Aberdeen-Hoquiam, Wash.
- Bellingham, Wash.
- Everett, Wash.

Small cities:
- Beaver Falls, Pa.
- Connellsville, Pa.
- Logansport, Ind.
- Mattoon, Ill.
- Peru, Ind.
- Wallingford, Conn.
- Willimantic, Conn
- Albany, Ga.
- Gastonia, N. C.
- Billings, Mont.

Bureau of Home Economics

Small cities:
- Astoria, Oreg.
- Beaver Dam, Wis.
- Boone, Iowa.
- Columbia, Mo.
- Dodge City, Kans.
- Eugene, Oreg.
- Greeley, Colo.
- Greenfield, Mass.
- Griffin, Ga.
- Klamath Falls, Oreg.
- Lincoln, Ill.
- Logan, Utah.
- Mount Vernon, Ohio.
- Moberly, Mo.
- New Philadelphia, Ohio.
- Olympia, Wash.
- Provo, Utah.
- Sumter, S. C.
- Westbrook, Maine.

levels. Consumption data have also been needed by groups concerned with the development of normative budgets, both for dependent families receiving allowances from social agencies, and for independent families wishing to compare their spending, actual and planned, with the average expenditures of families of similar type and income, spending enough to secure nutritionally adequate diets and standard housing.

The information secured will also meet the need of social scientists who have an interest in knowing how standards of living become fixed, and how standards differ from actual levels of living. Until very recently, economic theory has concerned itself primarily with the applications of labor and capital to production and exchange. We have not lacked impressive statistics of national production, bank clearings, and factory pay rolls. But in regard to the individual choices of the consumer—whose willingness and ability to absorb the offerings of the market determine the current state of economic well-being—we have for the most part had to content ourselves with theories which change with changing fashions in psychology, with guesses derived from data on population, total sales, and general price movements.

We have long had Engel's [7] theory of the changes which occur in the percentage of expenditure allotted to food with changes in income, but we have required data on the demand of families of given size, composition, and occupation for specific kinds of food. We have had Veblen's [8] penetrating analysis of the reasons why expenditures are made for certain goods and services not essential to physical well-being, but we have not known at what income level a family of a given type will be most likely to enter the market for luxury goods.

In recent years specific demands for such information have been partially met by the development of research agencies within trade associations and large business units, which have devoted substantial portions of their annual budgets to studies of consumer preference for their own particular commodities. Such studies have supplemented the more general investigations of consumer purchases made by Government and private research agencies. None of them has, however, been comprehensive enough to provide an adequate picture of consumption according to income in the United States.

In this investigation, expenditure data have been secured from an approximately equal number of families in each comparable group, or "cell," a cell comprising families of similar occupation, family composition, and income level. They were obtained from 15 income classes in the metropolitan areas, beginning with families having $500

[7] Engel, Ernst. Die Produktions und Konsumtions-verhältnisse des Königreichs Sachsen. Zeitschrift des Statistischen Bureaus des Königlichen Sächsischen Ministeriums des Innern, Nos. 8-9, November 22, 1857, pp. 27-29.

[8] Veblen, Thorstein. The Theory of the Leisure Class; An Economic Study in the Evolution of Institutions. New York, Macmillan Co., 1899.

for the year and extending to families having $10,000. Seven occupational groups were differentiated—the wage earner, clerical, salaried professional, salaried business, independent professional, and independent business, and the group not dependent on current employment. The classification by size and composition of family used in the expenditure data distinguished five family types in most of the communities covered—seven in the East North Central area. These family types varied from those which contain only the husband and wife to families of 7 or 8 persons. The collection of the expenditures data was planned in this way in order that the number of schedules secured from families of each type, and occupational group, at each income level, would be large enough to provide reliable averages. If the expenditure data had been secured from families chosen at random there would have been more schedules than were necessary from the wage earner and clerical groups, and not enough from the business and professional groups. There would have been an ample representation of families of husband and wife only, but an inadequate representation of families with husband, wife, and three to four children under 16 years of age.

The use of a "controlled" sample has resulted in securing data which make possible comparisons of consumption from one income level to another with the distribution of family types and occupations as it actually exists today, and, in addition, to estimate what changes in consumption would occur with a change in the distribution of families by income.

The study of consumption was correlated with an extensive study of the income distribution of a large number of families selected at random. The data secured in this part of the investigation were sorted by income, nativity, and occupational group, with the result that we have a composite picture of the consumption of the family type and nativity groups studied in each city. The income data, which were secured as a means of integrating the consumption data secured into averages at each income level covered, are of considerable value in themselves, and will provide one of the most important products of the investigation.

In each of the communities surveyed, random samples were taken, the sampling ratio ranging from 4 percent of the family population in New York, and 10 percent in Chicago, up to 100 percent in the farm and village communities and a few of the smaller cities. In the urban study approximately 300,000 families supplied the information needed for filling out the short "family schedule," giving information on amount and sources of income; occupations of employed family members; the membership of the family; home tenure, type of dwelling, and the rent or rental value of the dwelling. Similar information was secured by the Bureau of Home Economics for approximately

80,000 town, village, and farm families. Certain criteria of eligibility, as already noted, were set up for the families to be scheduled in order to give greater clarity to the findings. From the random sample there was selected a smaller group, totaling approximately 60,000 families for the combined rural-urban study, to provide data on family expenditures. The expenditure schedules obtained from this "controlled" sample, supported by detailed check lists for all items of food, clothing, and housefurnishings, have provided the information covering the quantities of goods and services purchased, and the amounts paid for specific commodities, as well as data on saving and borrowing in the year covered by the schedule. In building up the consumption pattern for the community represented by the random sample, averages representing each of the cells in the controlled

TABLE 1.—*Size of Random Sample, and Median Family Income*

[Preliminary figures]

City	Number of families scheduled	Median family income [1]		
		All families	Relief families [2]	Nonrelief families
Metropolises:				
New York	14,266	$1,814	$739	$2,015
New York (Negro)	1,262	837	537	1,350
Chicago	28,515	1,634	379	1,798
Large cities:				
Providence, R. I.	9,402	1,400	597	1,554
Columbus, Ohio	8,446	1,601	593	1,751
Columbus, Ohio (Negro)	2,049	695	569	1,031
Atlanta, Ga.	14,323	1,691	558	1,879
Atlanta, Ga. (Negro)	5,527	549	404	759
Omaha, Nebr.	11,293	1,552	541	1,733
Denver, Colo.	8,574	1,527	566	1,705
Portland, Oreg.	15,844	1,497	550	1,654
Middle-size cities:				
Muncie, Ind.	3,973	1,388	653	1,468
New Castle, Pa.	2,786	1,233	579	1,486
Springfield, Ill.	5,566	1,512	454	1,657
Haverhill, Mass.	2,864	1,203	672	1,459
New Britain, Conn.	2,030	1,400	732	1,508
Columbia, S. C.	4,715	1,859	663	1,975
Columbia, S. C. (Negro)	2,294	548	338	636
Mobile, Ala.	5,384	1,402	480	1,533
Mobile, Ala. (Negro)	3,370	444	338	567
Dubuque, Iowa	5,925	1,084	515	1,279
Springfield, Mo.	6,517	1,148	416	1,315
Butte, Mont.	3,510	1,606	609	1,817
Pueblo, Colo.	6,004	1,245	570	1,517
Aberdeen-Hoquiam, Wash.	3,336	1,249	673	1,512
Bellingham, Wash.	3,693	1,178	443	1,387
Everett, Wash.	3,422	1,202	536	1,477
Small cities:				
Beaver Falls, Pa.	1,792	1,283	537	1,449
Connellsville, Pa.	1,600	1,230	443	1,508
Logansport, Ind.	3,190	1,136	539	1,303
Mattoon, Ill.	2,521	1,036	374	1,378
Peru, Ind.	2,116	1,152	549	1,322
Wallingford, Conn.	1,074	1,598	791	1,690
Willimantic, Conn.	1,068	1,334	630	1,529
Albany, Ga.	1,066	1,653	475	1,802
Albany, Ga. (Negro)	1,163	392	262	460
Gastonia, N. C.	2,336	1,071	450	1,166
Gastonia, N. C. (Negro)	517	469	356	531
Billings, Mont.	1,550	1,838	528	1,947

[1] Includes imputed income from owned homes; that is, the excess of estimated rental value of owned homes over estimated money expense.

[2] Includes families on relief at any time during the year; however, income received as direct relief in cash or in kind is not included.

sample are given a weight corresponding to the number of families of the given type which occurred in the random sample. For some of the rarer cells, the random sample alone did not yield enough cases to provide the necessary expenditure schedules for families of the required characteristics. In such cases families of the needed types were secured in a special "stratified sample" secured from professional listings, or from particular neighborhoods in which families of the type desired were known to reside. These stratified samples were not, of course, combined with the frequencies established in the random sample.

TABLE 2.—*Average Size of Family and Average Number of Earners Per Family, 1935–36*

[Preliminary figures]

Cities	Average number of persons per family			Average number of earners per family [1]		
	All families	Relief families [2]	Nonrelief families	All families	Relief families [2]	Nonrelief families
Metropolises:						
New York	3.6	4.1	3.5	1.17	0.94	1.21
New York (Negro)	3.6	3.9	3.2	1.23	.93	1.46
Chicago	3.6	4.3	3.5	1.20	.98	1.22
Large cities:						
Providence, R. I	3.7	4.5	3.6	1.16	1.06	1.18
Columbus, Ohio	3.6	4.4	3.5	1.29	1.17	1.30
Columbus, Ohio (Negro)	3.7	4.1	3.5	1.31	1.18	1.39
Atlanta, Ga	3.8	4.6	3.6	1.33	1.27	1.34
Atlanta, Ga. (Negro)	3.9	4.3	3.7	1.64	1.60	1.67
Omaha, Nebr	3.6	4.3	3.5	1.22	1.19	1.22
Denver, Colo	3.4	3.9	3.3	1.21	1.14	1.22
Portland, Oreg	3.2	3.6	3.1	1.19	1.15	1.20
Middle-size cities:						
Muncie, Ind	3.6	4.3	3.6	1.26	1.19	1.27
New Castle, Pa	3.7	4.2	3.6	1.09	1.05	1.10
Springfield, Ill	3.6	4.4	3.6	1.21	1.03	1.24
Haverhill, Mass	3.7	4.3	3.5	1.31	1.26	1.32
New Britain, Conn	3.5	4.2	3.4	1.13	1.08	1.14
Columbia, S. C	3.9	4.6	3.8	1.34	1.58	1.32
Columbia, S. C. (Negro)	4.0	4.5	3.9	1.76	1.82	1.75
Mobile, Ala	4.1	4.7	4.0	1.34	1.34	1.34
Mobile, Ala. (Negro)	3.7	4.2	3.6	1.58	1.44	1.62
Dubuque, Iowa	4.0	4.6	3.9	1.19	1.13	1.20
Springfield, Mo	3.6	4.2	3.5	1.24	1.22	1.24
Butte, Mont	3.5	3.8	3.4	1.10	1.10	1.10
Pueblo, Colo	3.5	3.8	3.4	1.12	1.04	1.14
Aberdeen-Hoquiam, Wash	3.5	3.8	3.4	1.29	1.25	1.30
Bellingham, Wash	3.5	3.7	3.4	1.15	1.03	1.19
Everett, Wash	3.5	3.9	3.4	1.15	1.10	1.16
Small cities:						
Beaver Falls, Pa	3.8	4.4	3.6	1.22	1.20	1.23
Connellsville, Pa	4.2	4.6	4.0	1.16	1.10	1.18
Logansport, Ind	3.6	4.3	3.5	1.26	1.20	1.27
Mattoon, Ill	3.8	4.4	3.6	1.23	1.17	1.25
Peru, Ind	3.6	4.2	3.6	1.20	1.15	1.20
Wallingford, Conn	3.4	4.3	3.3	1.22	1.35	1.21
Willimantic, Conn	3.6	4.2	3.5	1.31	1.36	1.30
Albany, Ga	4.0	4.8	3.8	1.37	1.56	1.34
Albany, Ga. (Negro)	3.7	4.0	3.6	1.84	1.81	1.85
Gastonia, N. C	4.4	4.9	4.2	1.60	1.61	1.60
Gastonia, N. C. (Negro)	3.8	4.5	3.6	1.77	1.72	1.78
Billings, Mont	3.5	4.2	3.5	1.25	1.25	1.25

[1] Includes all persons with any money earnings during the year.
[2] Includes families having been on relief at any time during the year.

The results from this study will be published in three series of bulletins, the first covering data on income, occupation, and family composition secured in the random sample, the second covering summaries of family expenditures and savings, and the third giving the details of family expenditures for specific commodities.

Tabulation of the data from the random sample on the distribution of native white and native Negro families by income, family type, and occupation has been completed, and the 8 tables which follow summarize the data at present available for 32 cities. All the data are for native white or native Negro families, including both husband and wife.

TABLE 3.—*Percentage Distribution of All Families by Income Groups, 1935–36*

[Preliminary figures]

Cities	Percentage distribution of all families by income groups										
	Relief [1]	$0 –$499	$500 –$999	$1,000 $1,499	$1,500 –$1,999	$2,000 –$2,499	$2,500 –$2,999	$3,000 –$3,499	$3,500 –$3,999	$4,000 –$4,999	$5,000 and over
Metropolises:											
New York	16.1	1.6	6.5	14.9	18.4	14.6	10.2	5.9	3.4	3.3	5.1
New York (Negro)	43.7	.8	11.2	21.9	13.2	4.8	1.9	1.3	.6	.2	.4
Chicago	9.5	2.9	10.5	19.5	20.9	15.6	7.6	4.7	3.0	2.7	3.1
Large cities:											
Providence, R. I	12.9	3.3	15.0	23.4	17.7	10.6	5.6	3.7	2.2	2.0	3.6
Columbus, Ohio	12.0	1.8	11.3	20.8	19.7	13.0	7.8	4.9	2.9	2.7	3.1
Columbus, Ohio (Negro)	39.8	3.4	25.1	20.6	7.3	2.6	.6	.3	.2	[2]	.1
Atlanta, Ga	13.4	2.2	11.9	15.7	17.7	14.0	8.5	5.5	4.1	3.6	3.4
Atlanta, Ga. (Negro)	33.0	13.1	35.7	11.4	3.5	1.9	.7	.3	.1	.2	.1
Omaha, Nebr	14.3	1.5	10.9	21.3	19.0	13.3	7.5	4.3	2.7	2.5	2.7
Denver, Colo	13.8	2.5	12.3	20.2	18.3	12.5	7.0	4.3	2.6	3.0	3.5
Portland, Oreg	13.4	3.3	12.3	21.3	20.6	13.0	6.5	3.3	2.1	2.1	2.1
Middle-size cities:											
Muncie, Ind	9.2	2.5	14.9	29.9	20.4	10.4	5.8	2.5	1.6	1.4	1.4
New Castle, Pa	21.1	2.2	13.6	24.2	17.2	10.3	5.1	2.4	1.3	1.1	1.5
Springfield, Ill	10.3	3.3	15.3	20.7	17.1	12.4	7.3	5.0	3.0	2.9	2.7
Haverhill, Mass	22.8	4.1	14.6	21.7	15.6	10.1	5.2	2.6	1.0	1.2	1.1
New Britain, Conn	11.6	1.2	14.5	28.2	20.1	11.6	5.1	2.8	1.9	1.5	1.5
Columbia, S. C	8.3	1.3	12.7	14.6	18.0	13.5	9.5	6.9	5.0	4.7	5.5
Columbia, S. C. (Negro)	19.9	24.6	41.9	8.5	3.0	1.4	.4	.2	[2]	[2]	.1
Mobile, Ala	9.5	4.8	19.1	20.2	17.3	11.0	6.5	4.1	2.2	2.5	2.8
Mobile, Ala. (Negro)	23.2	32.3	34.3	6.8	1.6	1.5	.2	.1	[2]	[2]	------
Dubuque, Iowa	20.2	4.8	20.4	22.8	15.1	8.1	3.7	2.1	.9	1.0	.9
Springfield, Mo	14.0	7.7	21.8	20.5	16.5	9.1	4.7	2.2	1.4	1.1	1.0
Butte, Mont	18.2	.7	6.4	20.3	22.2	13.8	7.2	4.5	2.2	1.8	2.7
Pueblo, Colo	23.4	2.5	13.2	21.9	19.4	10.6	4.0	2.3	1.2	.9	.6
Aberdeen-Hoquiam, Wash	22.9	2.1	12.5	23.4	17.1	10.4	5.0	2.4	1.3	1.2	1.7
Bellingham, Wash	20.3	4.3	15.6	25.1	16.6	8.5	4.2	2.4	1.1	.9	1.0
Everett, Wash	23.9	3.0	12.9	23.1	18.2	9.1	4.7	2.2	1.0	1.0	.9
Small cities:											
Beaver Falls, Pa	15.3	2.4	14.6	27.7	18.4	9.9	4.6	3.1	1.8	1.2	1.0
Connellsville, Pa	22.9	3.5	14.1	20.5	17.9	10.0	5.0	2.6	1.6	1.1	.8
Logansport, Ind	15.4	6.5	21.5	22.1	17.6	7.9	4.2	2.6	.9	.6	.7
Mattoon, Ill	25.3	5.5	17.9	18.5	14.0	8.7	4.4	2.6	1.4	.8	.9
Peru, Ind	15.8	5.7	21.0	23.1	15.8	9.6	4.8	2.2	1.1	.6	.3
Wallingford, Conn	8.3	1.3	12.6	23.2	21.2	10.9	7.1	3.3	3.3	2.8	6.0
Willimantic, Conn	15.6	3.2	16.2	21.8	16.7	10.9	4.8	3.6	2.0	1.7	3.5
Albany, Ga	11.2	2.4	14.3	16.2	18.7	12.9	8.3	5.6	3.9	2.9	3.6
Albany, Ga. (Negro)	17.8	46.3	28.0	4.9	1.5	.8	.5	.1	------	------	.1
Gastonia, N. C	11.0	5.7	29.1	24.4	13.4	6.6	2.9	2.2	1.3	1.4	2.0
Gastonia, N. C. (Negro)	15.5	38.5	38.2	5.8	1.6	.4	------	------	------	------	------
Billings, Mont	9.1	1.7	7.7	17.7	20.5	15.2	9.9	7.8	2.8	3.5	4.1

[1] Includes families having been on relief at any time during the year.
[2] Less than 0.05 percent.

TABLE 4.—*Median Income of Nonrelief Families for Each Occupational Group, 1935–36*

[Preliminary figures]

Cities	Median income for nonrelief families by family occupational group[1]							
	All nonrelief families	Salaried		Independent		Clerical	Wage earners	Others
		Professional	Business	Professional	Business			
Metropolises:								
New York	$2,015	$2,985	$3,100	$3,789	$2,181	$2,109	$1,721	$828
New York (Negro)	1,350	1,833	(2)	1,688	1,375	1,984	1,266	(2)
Chicago	1,798	2,515	2,917	3,019	1,795	1,934	1,557	731
Large cities:								
Providence, R. I	1,554	2,517	2,831	3,781	1,638	1,703	1,324	731
Columbus, Ohio	1,751	2,521	2,728	2,913	1,626	1,897	1,496	906
Columbus, Ohio (Negro)	1,031	1,350	1,179	1,667	969	1,486	1,009	(2)
Atlanta, Ga	1,879	2,489	3,011	3,170	1,706	2,033	1,475	929
Atlanta, Ga. (Negro)	759	1,625	1,750	2,250	760	1,598	736	500
Omaha, Nebr	1,733	2,369	2,803	3,170	1,736	1,887	1,423	949
Denver, Colo	1,705	2,378	2,885	3,239	1,741	1,824	1,341	1,023
Portland, Oreg	1,654	2,171	2,600	2,663	1,546	1,796	1,445	677
Middle-size cities:								
Muncie, Ind	1,468	2,326	2,349	3,000	1,517	1,645	1,352	731
New Castle, Pa	1,486	2,208	2,413	3,250	1,588	1,648	1,354	844
Springfield, Ill	1,657	2,656	2,766	3,361	1,584	1,859	1,329	646
Haverhill, Mass	1,459	2,250	2,240	2,875	1,801	1,652	1,264	1,080
New Britain, Conn	1,508	2,063	2,500	(2)	1,614	1,629	1,334	(2)
Columbia, S. C	1,975	2,729	2,972	4,375	2,173	2,028	1,359	1,450
Columbia, S. C (Negro)	636	1,045	(2)	(2)	740	1,094	659	(2)
Mobile, Ala	1,533	2,052	2,544	3,563	1,530	1,712	1,208	703
Mobile, Ala. (Negro)	567	875	(2)	2,125	554	1,350	573	(2)
Dubuque, Iowa	1,279	1,975	2,420	2,667	1,341	1,592	1,160	439
Springfield, Mo	1,315	2,008	2,266	2,454	1,216	1,563	1,164	631
Butte, Mont	1,817	2,538	2,859	3,313	2,125	1,881	1,569	940
Pueblo, Colo	1,517	1,836	2,238	2,656	1,440	1,698	1,378	625
Aberdeen-Hoquiam, Wash	1,512	1,902	2,412	2,750	1,692	1,719	1,363	938
Bellingham, Wash	1,387	1,804	2,185	2,375	1,444	1,609	1,276	644
Everett, Wash	1,477	1,900	2,182	2,731	1,528	1,674	1,363	531
Small cities:								
Beaver Falls, Pa	1,449	2,139	2,250	3,125	1,606	1,741	1,316	781
Connellsville, Pa	1,508	2,042	2,196	(2)	1,344	1,648	1,407	727
Logansport, Ind	1,303	1,644	1,944	1,813	1,337	1,480	1,239	775
Mattoon, Ill	1,378	1,839	2,229	2,880	1,315	1,568	1,285	600
Peru, Ind	1,322	1,841	1,964	(2)	1,250	1,350	1,293	575
Wallingford, Conn	1,690	2,806	3,063	(2)	2,042	1,810	1,444	1,450
Willimantic, Conn	1,529	2,688	2,422	(2)	1,969	1,696	1,262	1,000
Albany, Ga	1,802	1,958	2,684	(2)	1,664	1,873	1,468	(2)
Albany, Ga. (Negro)	460	771	(2)	1,250	607	972	442	(2)
Gastonia, N. C	1,166	2,000	2,567	3,300	1,521	1,604	1,003	(2)
Gastonia, N. C. (Negro)	531	1,125	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	547	(2)
Billings, Mont	1,947	2,490	2,863	3,438	2,264	2,041	1,564	911

[1] Families were classified according to the occupational group from which the major part of their earnings were derived. Varying percentages of these groups received relief during the year. The median incomes, therefore, are not typical of the entire occupational group but only of those which did not receive any form of relief.

[2] Medians not computed for less than 25 cases.

TABLE 5.—*Percentage Distribution of Nonrelief Families by Occupational Groups, 1935–36*

[Preliminary figures]

Cities	Percentage distribution of nonrelief families by occupational groups						
	Salaried		Independent		Clerical	Wage earners	Others
	Professional	Business	Professional	Business			
Metropolises:							
New York	6.5	6.3	2.8	8.8	29.8	43.5	2.3
New York (Negro)	3.4	.6	1.3	7.3	13.1	73.6	.7
Chicago	5.6	6.0	2.0	8.5	30.5	45.4	2.0
Large cities:							
Providence, R. I	5.7	8.9	2.0	9.6	21.6	49.4	2.8
Columbus, Ohio	7.3	8.7	2.1	10.8	24.1	44.6	2.4
Columbus, Ohio (Negro)	2.6	1.5	1.3	5.8	4.8	82.7	1.3
Atlanta, Ga	5.1	11.6	2.3	10.1	32.0	37.0	1.9
Atlanta, Ga. (Negro)	2.6	.5	.6	6.8	4.0	84.7	.8
Omaha, Nebr	4.8	9.2	2.2	9.3	31.1	41.3	2.1
Denver, Colo	7.6	9.0	2.9	14.4	25.7	36.7	3.7
Portland, Oreg	6.3	7.6	2.7	12.6	26.1	41.1	3.6
Middle-size cities:							
Muncie, Ind	4.9	6.4	1.3	10.2	14.3	61.2	1.7
New Castle, Pa	4.5	6.1	2.4	11.9	16.7	55.4	3.0
Springfield, Ill	5.9	9.0	2.3	11.3	24.9	44.0	2.6
Haverhill, Mass	3.7	6.7	1.5	13.7	16.1	53.4	4.9
New Britain, Conn	7.8	8.7	1.0	7.0	20.8	53.4	1.3
Columbia, S. C	6.9	16.0	3.3	10.1	28.7	34.0	1.0
Columbia, S. C. (Negro)	3.6	.5	.7	5.1	2.2	87.2	.7
Mobile, Ala	3.4	11.5	1.4	12.1	26.8	43.1	1.7
Mobile, Ala. (Negro)	2.0	[1]	.3	6.0	2.9	87.9	.9
Dubuque, Iowa	3.4	5.8	1.5	10.9	19.8	54.3	4.3
Springfield, Mo	4.3	6.0	2.0	12.3	20.7	51.1	3.6
Butte, Mont	5.9	7.9	2.1	9.9	23.0	49.3	1.9
Pueblo, Colo	4.8	6.8	1.5	11.1	19.9	53.5	2.4
Aberdeen-Hoquiam, Wash	3.8	7.2	1.5	13.1	15.7	57.4	1.3
Bellingham, Wash	4.8	7.0	2.4	14.2	15.7	51.7	4.2
Everett, Wash	4.1	6.0	2.4	13.4	15.7	55.5	2.9
Small cities:							
Beaver Falls, Pa	6.5	4.5	1.7	9.8	16.5	59.2	1.8
Connellsville, Pa	5.2	4.6	1.9	9.1	19.7	55.6	3.9
Logansport, Ind	3.6	4.9	1.6	12.4	16.2	57.6	3.7
Mattoon, Ill	2.2	5.5	1.4	13.5	17.5	56.2	3.7
Peru, Ind	3.7	6.2	1.3	9.9	14.3	60.9	3.7
Wallingford, Conn	5.8	8.4	2.1	9.8	16.5	52.5	4.9
Willimantic, Conn	4.6	9.6	1.8	13.1	16.1	50.8	4.0
Albany, Ga	3.1	13.3	1.8	16.4	27.8	35.3	2.3
Albany, Ga. (Negro)	2.6	.2	.6	4.8	3.0	87.4	1.4
Gastonia, N. C	2.1	5.4	1.7	9.7	14.9	65.5	.7
Gastonia, N. C. (Negro)	2.5	[1]	.7	4.3	.7	90.4	1.4
Billings, Mont	5.5	12.6	2.2	15.2	27.4	34.1	3.0

[1] Less than 0.05 percent.

TABLE 6.—*Average Size of Family, and Percentage Distribution of All Families by Family Types, 1935–36*

[Preliminary figures]

Cities	Average number of persons per family	Percentage distribution of all families by family type [1]							
		Type 1	Type 2	Type 3	Type 4	Type 5	Type 6	Type 7	Other families
Metropolises:									
New York	3.6	24.2	20.5	14.7	18.5	8.0	7.2	3.1	3.8
New York (Negro)	3.6	39.4	12.4	8.9	15.9	5.3	7.4	5.7	5.0
Chicago	3.6	25.4	19.0	13.1	20.2	9.0	6.5	3.3	3.5
Large cities:									
Providence, R. I.	3.7	26.7	17.5	12.9	16.8	8.1	9.2	4.7	4.1
Columbus, Ohio	3.6	30.4	14.7	9.9	22.8	8.4	6.8	4.1	3.4
Columbus, Ohio (Negro)	3.7	36.2	10.8	6.8	19.2	7.7	7.9	6.2	5.2
Atlanta, Ga.	3.8	24.4	16.7	10.5	21.7	10.8	6.8	5.1	4.0
Atlanta, Ga. (Negro)	3.9	31.8	11.1	6.5	20.9	10.0	6.2	7.5	6.0
Omaha, Nebr.	3.6	27.6	16.7	12.5	19.7	8.6	7.9	4.2	2.8
Denver, Colo.	3.4	32.6	17.6	11.3	21.5	7.1	5.6	2.3	2.0
Portland, Oreg.	3.2	36.0	17.0	10.5	22.8	5.9	4.3	1.6	1.9
Middle-size cities:									
Muncie, Ind.	3.6	29.0	15.7	11.8	20.5	8.0	7.3	4.7	3.0
New Castle, Pa.	3.7	23.4	17.5	12.1	21.1	9.3	8.9	4.7	3.0
Springfield, Ill.	3.6	26.9	16.0	10.5	23.2	8.7	7.1	4.0	3.6
Haverhill, Mass.	3.7	27.1	16.6	11.4	20.3	8.3	7.5	4.8	4.0
New Britain, Conn.	3.5	26.9	22.8	15.5	14.8	6.4	8.3	3.0	2.3
Columbia, S. C.	3.9	20.6	16.5	12.8	21.1	11.2	7.5	5.8	4.5
Columbia, S. C. (Negro)	4.0	26.8	16.4	8.2	17.1	9.9	7.6	7.8	6.2
Mobile, Ala.	4.1	19.8	14.6	11.6	20.8	12.0	8.4	7.1	5.7
Mobile, Ala. (Negro)	3.7	34.3	13.7	7.7	17.9	8.0	7.3	6.6	4.5
Dubuque, Iowa	4.0	21.7	13.4	11.6	20.3	10.1	9.3	7.6	6.0
Springfield, Mo.	3.6	28.6	16.1	11.0	21.1	9.2	6.4	4.8	2.8
Butte, Mont.	3.5	29.8	18.2	12.9	19.4	7.6	6.9	2.9	2.3
Pueblo, Colo.	3.5	30.4	17.4	12.3	18.9	7.6	7.6	3.7	2.1
Aberdeen-Hoquiam, Wash.	3.5	28.9	19.4	13.8	19.1	7.7	6.1	3.0	2.0
Bellingham, Wash.	3.5	29.1	18.4	12.8	19.6	8.4	6.4	2.7	2.6
Everett, Wash.	3.5	28.9	18.1	13.1	20.7	7.5	6.4	3.1	2.2
Small cities:									
Beaver Falls, Pa.	3.8	24.2	15.3	11.5	22.7	9.7	7.4	4.8	4.4
Connellsville, Pa.	4.2	17.8	14.9	10.6	21.6	10.7	10.3	8.1	6.0
Logansport, Ind.	3.6	30.3	13.2	8.2	25.1	8.8	6.3	4.7	3.4
Mattoon, Ill.	3.8	26.2	14.6	9.8	20.4	10.9	7.8	6.5	3.8
Peru, Ind.	3.6	29.0	14.4	10.2	21.2	9.1	7.9	5.0	3.2
Wallingford, Conn.	3.4	30.7	18.0	14.0	19.1	6.5	6.8	2.4	2.5
Willimantic, Conn.	3.6	30.1	14.7	12.5	20.0	7.6	6.9	5.7	2.5
Albany, Ga.	4.0	20.5	17.0	11.7	20.5	11.7	8.2	5.9	4.5
Albany, Ga. (Negro)	3.7	35.3	13.4	6.8	18.6	9.4	6.0	6.3	4.2
Gastonia, N. C.	4.4	15.6	16.0	13.3	14.6	12.3	12.5	10.1	5.6
Gastonia, N. C. (Negro)	3.8	33.0	15.7	6.6	15.5	8.7	8.7	7.0	4.8
Billings, Mont.	3.5	27.9	20.1	10.7	19.4	8.8	6.3	3.6	3.2

[1] Family type:
Type 1: Two persons—husband and wife only.
Type 2: Three persons—husband, wife, 1 child under 16 and no others.
Type 3: Four persons—husband, wife, 2 children under 16, and no others.
Type 4: Three or 4 persons—husband, wife, 1 person 16 or over, and 1 or no other person regardless of age.
Type 5: Five or 6 persons—husband, wife, 1 child under 16, 1 person 16 or over, and 1 or 2 other persons regardless of age.
Type 6: Five or 6 persons—husband, wife, 3 or 4 children under 16, and no others.
Type 7: Seven or 8 persons—husband, wife, 1 child under 16, 4 or 5 other persons regardless of age.
Other: Families of 5 or more persons except those included in type 5 through type 7.

TABLE 7.—*Percentage of Nonrelief Home-Owning Families and Average Monthly Rent of Renting Families, 1935–36*

[Preliminary figures]

Cities	Percent of home-owning families (non-relief)	Average monthly rent of renting families [1]		
		All families	Relief families	Nonrelief families
Metropolises:				
New York	18.5	$39.50	$24.91	$42.71
New York (Negro)	6.3	31.70	25.70	36.60
Chicago	22.3	32.80	18.10	34.60
Large cities:				
Providence, R. I.	22.4	24.80	15.20	26.50
Columbus, Ohio	39.9	24.40	15.40	26.10
Columbus, Ohio (Negro)	25.1	14.70	12.50	16.40
Atlanta, Ga.	34.1	23.30	12.60	25.60
Atlanta, Ga. (Negro)	24.1	10.70	9.20	11.30
Omaha, Nebr.	47.5	24.90	14.60	27.40
Denver, Colo.	41.3	25.20	15.00	27.40
Portland, Oreg.	50.6	20.40	12.20	22.20
Middle-size cities:				
Muncie, Ind.	44.1	19.40	11.80	20.40
New Castle, Pa.	45.6	19.70	14.30	21.70
Springfield, Ill.	43.4	25.00	12.60	27.00
Haverhill, Mass.	40.0	23.50	18.90	25.40
New Britain, Conn.	18.5	22.40	15.20	23.50
Columbia, S. C.	35.8	24.50	15.40	25.60
Columbia, S. C. (Negro)	22.3	9.10	8.10	9.30
Mobile, Ala.	38.9	18.20	11.30	19.10
Mobile, Ala. (Negro)	26.4	8.00	7.20	8.30
Dubuque, Iowa	45.2	18.00	12.00	20.00
Springfield, Mo.	51.3	15.20	8.40	17.00
Butte, Mont.	42.3	22.20	14.60	24.20
Pueblo, Colo.	49.5	17.00	11.30	19.50
Aberdeen-Hoquiam, Wash.	43.4	15.70	10.80	17.40
Bellingham, Wash.	59.4	14.60	9.40	16.40
Everett, Wash.	52.0	16.30	11.50	18.20
Small cities:				
Beaver Falls, Pa.	42.0	18.90	12.40	20.40
Connellsville, Pa.	42.9	18.00	12.20	20.40
Logansport, Ind.	47.0	13.90	8.10	15.40
Mattoon, Ill.	53.5	14.10	9.10	16.90
Peru, Ind.	50.5	13.30	8.60	14.60
Wallingford, Conn.	36.3	23.80	16.00	24.70
Willimantic, Conn.	34.6	19.60	13.60	21.00
Albany, Ga.	24.0	18.60	10.40	19.90
Albany, Ga. (Negro)	19.0	5.80	4.80	6.00
Gastonia, N. C.	19.6	10.60	7.60	11.00
Gastonia, N. C. (Negro)	26.1	6.70	6.00	6.90
Billings, Mont.	44.5	28.20	15.80	29.90

[1] Monthly rent at the end of the reporting year.

TABLE 8.—*Rent as a Percent of Family Income for Nonrelief Renting Families, by Income Groups, 1935–36*

[Preliminary figures]

Cities	Rent as percent of family income, by family income groups							
	All nonrelief families	Under $500	$500–$999	$1,000–$1,499	$1,500–$1,999	$2,000–$2,999	$3,000–$4,999	$5,000 and over
Metropolises:								
New York	22.2	162.0	43.1	30.3	25.4	22.4	19.4	15.7
New York (Negro)	30.4	87.4	43.3	34.3	27.3	22.8	21.5	10.2
Chicago	21.5	116.4	34.8	26.3	22.6	20.0	17.1	13.4
Large cities:								
Providence, R. I	19.3	78.5	28.2	21.5	18.5	17.3	15.4	12.2
Columbus, Ohio	17.6	77.6	27.5	21.1	18.1	15.4	13.7	10.2
Columbus, Ohio (Negro)	18.9	42.4	23.2	17.5	13.6	12.7	7.4	(1)
Atlanta, Ga	16.5	47.2	22.6	18.3	17.4	15.9	14.0	11.2
Atlanta, Ga. (Negro)	18.4	33.0	18.5	14.7	11.9	10.6	8.4	9.6
Omaha, Nebr	19.0	65.2	26.3	22.0	19.5	17.1	15.1	10.3
Denver, Colo	19.0	72.3	27.1	21.9	18.9	16.8	14.8	10.6
Portland, Oreg	16.2	64.0	24.3	18.0	15.9	14.1	12.2	9.7
Middle-size cities:								
Muncie, Ind	16.6	54.2	21.0	18.0	15.8	14.1	12.3	7.5
New Castle, Pa	17.7	53.4	25.0	19.0	16.6	14.5	12.9	11.7
Springfield, Ill	18.9	59.5	26.9	22.0	19.6	17.2	14.5	11.4
Haverhill, Mass	21.1	67.8	32.5	23.3	19.5	15.9	12.3	9.4
New Britain, Conn	17.7	93.0	23.2	19.9	17.5	15.8	13.4	8.3
Columbia, S. C	16.3	39.2	19.6	17.6	18.2	16.2	13.9	10.2
Columbia, S. C. (Negro)	17.9	27.2	17.0	11.9	12.3	10.2	-------	-------
Mobile, Ala	15.2	43.1	20.6	16.5	14.5	13.3	10.9	9.5
Mobile, Ala. (Negro)	17.2	26.8	15.0	11.0	8.4	7.2	3.4	-------
Dubuque, Iowa	17.7	67.3	22.4	18.6	16.6	14.4	13.2	8.9
Springfield, Mo	15.7	42.2	19.5	15.9	14.1	13.1	11.3	8.0
Butte, Mont	15.2	63.5	28.3	17.0	16.1	14.2	13.0	7.8
Pueblo, Colo	15.8	54.4	20.9	16.9	15.3	13.6	11.2	7.1
Aberdeen-Hoquiam, Wash	13.4	50.0	19.7	14.4	13.4	10.8	9.2	8.4
Bellingham, Wash	13.8	46.3	19.1	14.3	13.1	11.8	9.8	8.5
Everett, Wash	15.0	52.5	21.6	15.2	14.0	13.3	10.3	9.3
Small cities:								
Beaver Falls, Pa	16.2	63.2	23.0	17.7	15.8	13.4	11.5	7.1
Connellsville, Pa	16.4	53.2	22.9	17.7	16.2	13.1	10.5	8.1
Logansport, Ind	14.3	39.2	17.8	14.2	13.5	11.6	8.5	7.8
Mattoon, Ill	14.9	54.8	19.9	14.8	14.4	11.9	9.5	6.3
Peru, Ind	13.7	42.7	18.4	13.7	11.6	10.8	8.8	4.4
Wallingford, Conn	16.7	64.6	26.7	21.4	17.8	15.3	12.1	5.6
Willimantic, Conn	16.6	69.7	23.3	19.0	16.1	14.3	9.9	7.0
Albany, Ga	13.3	36.1	18.5	15.7	15.1	12.3	10.4	4.7
Albany, Ga. (Negro)	15.2	20.2	12.6	8.9	7.2	8.4	-------	-------
Gastonia, N. C	10.9	20.0	12.0	9.6	10.0	11.5	10.8	8.5
Gastonia, N. C. (Negro)	15.7	21.5	13.2	11.1	9.5	(1)	-------	-------
Billings, Mont	18.8	77.3	32.2	23.8	20.0	17.9	14.3	6.8

[1] Insufficient number of cases for computation of reliable percentage.

Social Security

SICKNESS AND MATERNITY INSURANCE IN FRANCE[1]

A GENERAL social-insurance system covering the risks of sickness, and maternity, invalidity and old age, and death was established in France by the law of April 5, 1928, as amended April 30, 1930, and made effective July 1, 1930. The system was coordinated with the one which was in effect in Alsace-Lorraine when the territory was restored to French sovereignty, by the decree of July 29, 1937, effective August 1. The decree provided for the transference of members to either the local or the general system when a change of workplace takes them into the territory of the other if the duration of work exceeds 6 months. Insured persons are required to report the change of workplace within 1 month.

The law provided for two distinct systems—one for commercial, industrial, and domestic workers, and the other for agricultural workers. One premium covers all the risks, but a certain proportion is set aside for the sickness and maternity system. On the basis of the experience gained in the years 1930 to 1935, the system was revised by decree laws of October 28 and 30, 1935, dealing with industry and agriculture, which form the present basic law. The chief modifications effected by the law covering industrial and commercial employees were the extension of the system to cover persons whose inclusion was not clear previously, an increase in benefits, and administrative simplification under 15 regional offices instead of 89 departmental offices. The important subsequent amendments were made in decrees dated March 19, 1936, and August 26, 1936, the most outstanding changes being the increase in the maximum cash sickness benefit and further extension of the system by raising the wage limit of those compulsorily insured.

The original law provided that voluntary insurance might be taken out by farmers and agriculturists not covered by compulsory insurance, artisans, small proprietors, nonsalaried intellectual workers, and in general all persons who, without being on a salary, lived principally on the products of their labor, if such persons were of French nationality and their earnings did not exceed the limits set for those com-

[1] Reports from Benjamin M. Hulley, American consul, Paris, dated October 11, 12, 15, 26, and 30, 1937; and Journal Officiel de la République française, Paris, October 31, November 4, 7, 1935; March 22, August 30, 1936; April 18, October 12, 1937.

pulsorily insured. Voluntary insurance was abolished in 1935, however, owing to the small number applying for such insurance.

The latest report on the operation of the social-insurance system, covering the years 1934 and 1935, stated that the number of registered industrial and commercial wage earners on December 31, 1935, was approximately 10,000,000 and the number of workers in agriculture and forestry 1,150,000. However, the total number of contributors to the fund in industry and commerce had remained at approximately 6,400,000 during the years 1933 to 1935, while in 1935 the contributors in agriculture numbered about 700,000. During 1936 the number of insured persons paying contributions increased as a result of the decree law of October 28, 1935, which added certain classes of persons to those already subject to compulsory insurance. The difference between the number of persons registered and the number paying contributions is accounted for by the difficult economic situation and to a certain extent by the previous ambiguity of the legislative provisions as to coverage, as well as by the fact that there are many duplications, chiefly owing to the transfer of insured persons from one district to another without canceling the record in the previous district.

System for Industrial, Commercial, and Domestic Workers

COVERAGE

All wage earners of both sexes within certain wage limits are compulsorily insured. The law of 1928 as amended in 1930 fixed the maximum earnings of industrial workers subject to compulsory insurance at 15,000 francs per year, or 18,000 francs in cities of more than 200,000 inhabitants and in certain industrial districts, the limit being increased according to the number of dependent children up to a maximum of 25,000 francs. A law passed August 26, 1936, fixed the maximum wages at 21,000 francs for persons without dependent children and at 25,000 francs for persons having at least one dependent child. Persons receiving less than 1,000 francs (formerly 1,500 francs) per year are not subject to insurance. Children who are going to school, and who are employed for wages at work not prohibited by the Labor Code are not considered as wage earners for the purpose of insurance, nor are children working at home for their parents without pay.

A Government bill was introduced in December 1937 providing for extension of the wage limit for coverage to 30,000 francs, whether or not a worker has children. A law of December 31, 1937, provided that the insurance offices should suspend, until Parliament has acted on the bill, all cancelations of membership in the system for members whose wages exceeded the former limits.

The uncertainty arising from the definition of wage earner in the 1930 law left in doubt the situation of occasional workers, home workers, and

certain other groups. This condition was corrected by the decree law of October 28, 1935. In addition to workers in industrial and commercial establishments, the system now includes all persons whose earnings do not exceed the prescribed maximum, whatever the form and nature of their contract, even if they do not work in the establishment of the employer or the head of the enterprise or if they own part or all of the tools necessary for their work and it also includes specifically persons working usually and regularly at home, either alone or with members of their family; commercial travelers selling nonpatented articles but receiving commissions; hotel, cafe, and restaurant employees; drivers of public vehicles; baggage porters who work under a contract; and employees of theaters, moving-picture theaters, and other places of entertainment. Apprentices are subject to insurance, even if they do not receive cash wages but receive payments in kind (board, lodging, etc.), if the value of such payments is at least 1,000 francs.

Foreign wage earners living in France, whose wages are within the prescribed limits, are insured on the same basis as French workers, but are not entitled to pensions unless there is a reciprocal agreement between their country of origin and France. Also, workers from other countries who reside on the frontier but work regularly in France are admitted to benefits under the system if a diplomatic agreement providing for reciprocal insurance rights has been concluded between the two countries. When a foreign worker returns to his country he is dropped from the insurance rolls but retains the value of the pension entered in his individual account.

Compulsory insurance ceases at the age of 60, when the pension becomes payable, but if the insured person continues at work the employer alone pays the fee (4 percent).

The act does not apply to persons employed by the State, the Departments, the communes, and public institutions for poor relief, merchant seamen, miners and allied workers, and employees of railways, tramways, and enterprises holding concessions for public gas or electricity service, all of whom continue to be covered by special systems. The regulations applying to such persons have been brought into line, however, with the general social-insurance system by different decrees, laying down rules for the transfer of workers from one system to the other. There are approximately 400,000 railway men, 250,000 miners, and 150,000 seamen covered by the special systems.

CONTRIBUTIONS

The insurance system is financed by equal contributions by the employer and the worker, supplemented by certain contributions by the State. The total contribution for commercial and industrial workers and domestic servants amounts to 8 percent of the real wage,

divided equally between the worker and the employer.[2] The fraction of the contribution allotted to sickness and maternity insurance is 4 percent of the insured wage; this fraction is payable in equal shares by the insured person and the employer.

The real wage on which the contribution is calculated includes the cash wage, bonuses, and tips, and the value of payments in kind. Family allowances are not included. The maximum salary or wage limit for the calculation of contributions is 15,000 francs, i. e., 1,250 francs per month if wages are paid on a monthly basis, 625 francs per fortnight, 315 francs per week, 50 francs per day, or 8 francs per hour for days which are shorter than the legal workday. Contributions are on the basis of 1,500 francs for annual wages between 1,000 and 1,500 francs. Thus the lowest annual contribution is 120 francs and the highest 1,200 francs. For domestic employees receiving board, with or without lodging, the annual wages are arbitrarily fixed by decree, for the calculation of contributions, at 8,400 francs for men and 4,800 francs for women in cities of 80,000 or more inhabitants, and 6,000 francs for men and 3,600 francs for women in other communities. Under the original law employees were divided into five wage classes and a flat rate of daily or monthly contributions was fixed for each wage class, the contributions amounting to approximately 8 percent of the average wages of these workers. In addition to the regular contributions, members in receipt of sickness benefit are required to pay 20 percent of doctors' and dentists' fees and of the cost of medical appliances and medicines (40 percent, in case of prescriptions costing more than 25 francs).

The employees' contributions are deducted from their wages by the employer, who is required to pay the double contribution either at a post office or by postal order to the regional insurance office. The deposits are made quarterly and are entered on a leaflet issued to each insured person, which shows the total remuneration upon which the contribution is calculated. These leaflets are sent to insured persons each year by the regional social-insurance office. The regulations also specify the method of payment of the contributions of home workers and of workers by the task or on piece work, if they work for one or several employers. The value of payments in kind and of tips is estimated according to scales established by decree, account being taken of collective agreements covering this point. Employees receiving tips are required to pay the employer the amount of their contributions calculated according to the established scale. For employees leaving employment during a quarter, the contribution must be paid during the first 10 days of the following month.

[2] The joint contribution rate was reduced from 8 to 7 percent as a temporary measure for the year 1936, with a maximum contribution of 70 francs per month, but the 8 percent rate is now in effect.

Every employer having more than 100 insured persons in his employ is required to deposit each year in the deposit and consignment fund, as security, an amount at least equal to one-tenth of the contributions of the preceding year. A decree issued by the Minister of Labor fixes the amount of the bond. This deposit is not required, however, of those employers who pay their contributions within the first 10 days of each month for the preceding month.

BENEFITS

Sickness.—Benefits are paid in case of sickness or accident, with the exception of occupational diseases and industrial accidents, which are covered by the workmen's compensation law. Insured persons, their husbands or wives, and dependent children under the age of 16 are entitled to general and special medical care, dental care, medicines and appliances, treatment in hospitals or sanatoriums, necessary surgical operations, and preventive treatment, as well as the costs of transportation. Special dental care includes only such functional and therapeutic appliances as are necessary to the exercise of a profession. The provision of such devices is subject to authorization by a special committee. If the practitioner finds it necessary to call a consultant, no indemnity will be granted unless the insured person signs a statement that he will be responsible for extra charges until reimbursed by the fund. If the case is urgent, a notice must be sent to the medical inspector of the fund by the insured person or by the consultant within 3 days. Laboratory analyses, serums, or vaccines will not be paid for unless the medical inspector of the fund considers such outlays indispensable in a given case of sickness. Cash sickness benefits are paid to insured persons for a maximum period of 6 months for the same illness, but are not paid to members of the families of such persons.

An insured person has free choice of a physician. Medical consultations must take place at the physician's office unless the condition of the insured person does not permit.

Cases of sickness must be reported to the fund within 3 days. Medical benefits are due from the date of illness and are given for a maximum period of 6 months for the same illness. Any relapse occurring within 2 months is considered as a continuance of the original illness.

If the insured person is able to continue at work, but needs preventive care, special benefits may be granted for not to exceed 2 years. The total medical and pharmaceutical costs may not exceed, for each day of sickness and beginning with the first medical consultation, 50 percent of the average basic daily wage for the preceding year. In case of sickness requiring special treatment, however, this maximum may be exceeded. The costs of hospitalization are paid within fixed

limits by the fund, the insured person being liable for the difference between the total cost and the amount paid by the fund. This applies to public hospitals and private hospitals which have made an agreement with the fund. If the insured person enters a noncontract hospital he may claim reimbursement if the fund does not protest within 8 days.

Cash benefits are paid for each working day lost because of sickness beginning with the sixth day and from the fourth if there are at least three dependent children. The minimum cash benefit is fixed at 3 francs per day and the maximum at 22 francs (formerly 18 francs), varying according to the amount of the contributions paid by the insured. For example, if the double contribution in the two preceding quarters was 60 to 84 francs, the daily benefit is 3 francs; if 108 to 123 francs, 5 francs; if 228 to 252 francs, 10 francs; if 324 to 348 francs, 14 francs; if 420 to 444 francs, it is 18 francs; and if over 444 francs, 22 francs. The benefit is increased by 1 franc for each dependent child under 16 years of age. If the insured person requires hospitalization, the cash benefit is reduced by half if he is married and has no other dependents, by a third if he has one or more dependent children or parents, and by three-fourths in all other cases.

Cash benefit is payable only if a minimum number of contributions have been credited to the insured person's account. The payment of these contributions, when they are deducted in advance from wages, is tantamount to the completion of the qualifying period. As a general rule, before the insured person can claim benefit he must have had not less than 30 francs deducted in advance from his wages during the two calendar quarters preceding the sickness. If the payments registered during these two quarters do not amount to 30 francs, reference is made to the four calendar quarters preceding the date at which the insured person's claim is considered and the minimum is then increased to 60 francs. If on the first day of the calendar quarter preceding sickness, the insured person has been registered for less than 6 months, the contribution he is required to have paid during the preceding calendar quarter is 15 francs. The effect of these requirements is tempered by the fact that in the event of sickness of more than 1 month, accident, maternity, invalidity, or unemployment, a prescribed contribution is, under the conditions laid down in the act, paid or considered to have been paid on behalf of the insured person, which is sufficient to maintain his right to benefit. This provision as related to unemployment applies only to persons of French nationality or of some nationality which is treated on the same footing.

The insured person pays the cost of medical benefits and is reimbursed by the fund up to 80 percent of these costs.

Maternity.—A woman worker is entitled to medical care and medicines before and after childbirth and to a nursing benefit. The wife of

an insured worker is entitled to a confinement benefit only. The insured woman (or her husband) must have paid at least 60 francs during the four quarters preceding confinement, of which at least 15 francs must have been paid during the first of these quarters. Application for maternity leaflets must be made during the first 4 months of the pregnancy. Consultations with the doctor, of which there must be at least three preceding the confinement, are recorded on these leaflets. Attendance at postpartum clinics is also required. The fund pays 24 francs to assure continuance of the insurance rights of a woman who stops work for 6 weeks before the confinement. The cash benefit, paid to insured women only, ranges from 3 to 22 francs per day according to the amount of contributions and is paid for a maximum of 72 workdays (12 weeks of 6 days). The benefit is increased by 1 franc for each dependent child. Each region fixes a lump sum for medical expenses, varying from 250 to 300 francs; increases are allowed for plural and complicated births. Benefits for nursing mothers usually amount to 175 francs for each of the first 4 months and 150 francs for the fifth month, or a total of 850 francs. In case of plural births the benefit is correspondingly increased. A milk benefit, varying in the different regions from 20 to 60 percent of the nursing benefit, is paid to a mother who cannot nurse her child, if the doctor so certifies.

Death benefit.—A death benefit is paid to the spouse or other heirs of wage earners who have been insured at least 1 year, amounting to 20 percent of the annual wage received in the year preceding illness or death if at least 60 francs in contributions have been paid during the year. The death benefit is increased by 100 francs for each dependent child under 16 years of age. Temporary pensions are also allotted to widows of insured persons who have at least 3 children under the age of 13 years and to orphaned children under the age of 13 or under 16 if they are in school, are working under a contract of apprenticeship, or are crippled or suffering from an incurable disease.

PENALTIES AND SETTLEMENT OF DISPUTES

Sickness, wounds, or infirmities deliberately caused by the insured person do not entitle him to a cash benefit, but there is no provision for the suspension of medical benefit unless the insured person will not submit to supervision.

A fine of 16 to 500 francs is imposed on anyone guilty of fraud or false declaration in order to obtain benefits. Various fines and penalties are imposed on administrators or employees of the insurance systems, doctors, surgeons, etc., for false declarations and other contraventions of the act.

Disputes other than those concerning the supervision of sick persons are referred to a district committee, the chairman of which is a police-

court magistrate or assistant police-court magistrate, the other members including an employer and an insured person, assisted by the clerk of the civil tribunal. Any dispute between an insured person and his sick fund in regard to his state of health is considered by a technical committee consisting of the medical practitioner chosen by the insured person, a doctor nominated by the fund, and a doctor chosen by the chairman of the civil tribunal.

System for Agricultural Workers

Insurance is compulsory for all wage earners in agricultural and forestry occupations, rural artisans (blacksmiths, wheelwrights, etc.), and employees of agricultural unions, cooperatives, insurance societies, and other organized professional farm groups, if their earnings are not less than 1,500 francs nor more than 21,000 francs (25,000 francs if there is one dependent child). Tenant farmers (*métayers*) ordinarily working alone, with the assistance of members of their family, are subject to insurance if upon becoming tenants they owned less than 1,000 francs worth of livestock. The total annual earnings of métayers are considered as equal to those of an agricultural laborer of the section. The members of the family are compulsorily insured if they customarily live and work with the head of the family and if he has other permanent employees and is thereby subject to the workmen's compensation law covering agriculture. Agricultural workers having also another occupation are insured under the agricultural system if their main occupation is agriculture; in doubtful cases they are classified as nonagricultural. Insured persons may choose the fund to which they will belong—mutual agricultural fund, mutual-aid society, etc.; if they fail to choose a fund they are insured in the agricultural section of the departmental fund.

Contributions are based on sex and age, regardless of wages. The total annual premium, divided equally between employers and employees, is 240 francs for men, 192 francs for women, and 144 francs for children. In the case of tenant farmers the landowner is considered to be the employer. Of these contributions 120 francs is paid to the sickness-maternity fund for each of the three classes, and 120 francs, 72 francs, and 24 francs, respectively, are credited to the individual's account in the retirement fund.

In order to be entitled to sickness benefits, the insured agricultural worker must have paid at least six monthly contributions in the course of the two calendar quarters preceding the sickness. If the insured person has been registered less than 6 months, three contributions must have been paid during the quarter preceding the sickness. Maternity benefits are payable if the insured person or the husband of the claimant has paid 10 monthly contributions during the 4

quarters preceding the confinement, 3 of which must have been paid in the first quarter. The sickness and maternity benefits are the same as those granted to industrial and commercial employees, except that the daily cash benefit is 7 francs instead of varying according to the rate of contribution.

Administration of General System

The administration of the social-insurance system is centered in the Bureau of Social Insurance (*Direction Générale des Assurances Sociales*) under the Ministry of Labor. This central office operates through 15 regional bureaus located in the principal cities, each regional office having jurisdiction over 5 to 8 departments. The regional bureaus handle enrollments, cancelations, transfers, and the quarterly individual contribution records, and are responsible, generally, for the effective operation of the system. The administration of the insurance for the covering of risks and payment of benefits is in control of departmental, or in exceptional cases interdepartmental, funds, the membership of which includes both insured persons who wish to be affiliated to such funds and those who have not chosen any other institution; funds set up by mutual-aid societies or unions of such societies or by trade-unions or federations of such unions, or by voluntary associations of insured persons; and funds set up by employers' organizations which have authority to insure such risks as are financed on the assessment system. All funds of private origin must, before they begin to operate, be approved by the Minister of Labor.

These primary funds under the regional offices are of two kinds—"caisses de repartition" dealing with the risks of sickness and maternity and "caisses de capitalisation" dealing with the risks of invalidity, old age, and death. The insured person is allowed to choose the sickness-maternity fund to which he will belong, but this fund assigns him to the fund covering the other risks. Membership in a fund lasts 2 years and is renewable automatically unless the insured person applies for a transfer. A change of fund is compulsory when the insured person moves into another area than that covered by the fund of which he is a member. All the sick funds in a regional district are grouped in the regional union. These unions assist the local funds in case of a deficit and organize preventive services for sick persons seeking to avoid invalidity. In 1935 there were 744 local primary funds for employees of industry and commerce and 353 for agricultural workers.

The Superior Social Insurance Council, under the chairmanship of the Minister of Labor, has general supervision of the administration of the act. The council is composed of about 60 members consisting

of representatives of the Ministries of Labor, Finance, and Public Health, the Senate and Chamber of Deputies, the various funds, the different medical and dental services, and financial and social insurance experts. The term of office of members of the council is 4 years.

The administration of sick funds is in the hands of a committee of at least 18 members, of whom at least half are insured persons elected by the general meeting of insured persons, 6 are representatives of the employers affiliated to the fund, and 2 are medical practitioners appointed on the proposal of the medical boards.

Statistics of Operation of General System

The latest report available on the operation of the social insurance system covers the years 1934 and 1935. The amount of contributions paid into the social-insurance system, however, is reported through the year 1936.

Contributions by employers and workers covering all the risks and paid-in stamps, checks, and cash, from July 1, 1930, when the law became effective, to the end of 1936 were as follows:

	Francs
1930 (6 months)	1, 496, 736, 174
1931	3, 562, 401, 338
1932	3, 261, 798, 160
1933	3, 271, 276, 895
1934	3, 175, 994, 197
1935	3, 085, 908, 635
1936	2, 635, 000, 000

Of the total amount contributed from 1930 to 1935—17,854,115,400 francs [3]—7,743,089,486 francs were paid to the "caisses de repartition," covering the risks of sickness and maternity. Slightly more than half the amounts in the above statement were paid by employers and the balance from employees' wages. The gradual decrease in contributions from 1931 to 1935 was due to wage reductions and total and partial unemployment resulting from the economic crisis, and the sharp decline in 1936 was largely due to the reduction in the rate from 8 to 7 percent. It was expected that contributions in 1937 would approximate 4,000,000,000 francs as a result of higher wages, extension of the system to include more workers, and restoration of the 8-percent rate.

The expenditures for sickness, maternity, and death benefits totaled 5,582,374,058 francs in the years 1930 to 1935 as shown in table 1. These figures include payments under the voluntary system for industrial and commercial employees which is no longer in force.

[3] Average exchange rate of franc in 1930 and 1931=3.92 cents; in 1932=3.93 cents; in 1933=5.03 cents; in 1934=6.57 cents; in 1935=6.60 cents; and in 1936=6.11 cents.

TABLE 1.—*Disbursements for Sickness, Maternity, and Death Benefits in France, 1930 to 1935*

Year	Sickness	Maternity	Death	Other	Total
	Francs	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*
1930–31	714,644,616	155,780,335	7,016,262	662,970	878,104,183
1932	875,873,375	178,084,057	30,460,686	2,011,009	1,086,429,127
1933	935,401,696	170,144,342	33,596,860	2,145,244	1,141,288,142
1934 [1]	988,983,615	171,753,237	34,133,108	1,737,058	1,196,607,018
1935 [1]	1,076,317,242	168,556,799	35,071,547	----------	1,279,945,588

[1] Provisional figures.

Supplementary payments on account of family charges from 1930 to 1935 totaled approximately 95,000,000 francs. Expenditures for supplementary benefits such as nursing bonuses and subventions for social work rose from 54,000,000 francs for the 2-year period 1932 and 1933 to 44,000,000 francs in 1934 and 48,000,000 francs in 1935.

Table 2 shows the expenditures for the different classes of sickness benefit by the nonagricultural funds up to the end of 1934.

TABLE 2.—*Payments for Sickness Benefits by Nonagricultural Sickness Funds, 1930 to 1934*

Type of benefit	Oct. 1, 1930, to Dec. 31, 1931	1932	1933	1934
Medical, etc., benefits				
Sickness:	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*
Medical	127,615,000	130,737,000	139,136,000	137,512,000
Surgical	31,835,000	37,593,000	40,607,000	49,113,000
Pharmaceutical	143,346,000	159,800,000	170,322,000	182,418,000
Dental	16,518,000	24,941,000	29,133,000	34,180,000
Hospitalization and cures	56,651,000	99,582,000	104,756,000	106,556,000
Sanitariums and dispensaries	5,382,000	10,254,000	14,313,000	14,972,000
Indemnities for free medical assistance	4,961,000	21,497,000	27,068,000	32,320,000
Total	386,308,000	484,404,000	525,335,000	557,071,000
Maternity:				
Medical	37,942,000	35,505,000	33,877,000	33,597,000
Surgical	3,987,000	3,564,000	3,315,000	3,471,000
Pharmaceutical	4,795,000	5,027,000	5,102,000	5,362,000
Hospitalization and cures	4,888,000	9,302,000	8,939,000	10,526,000
Sanitariums and dispensaries	684,000	827,000	1,017,000	898,000
Indemnities for free medical assistance	477,000	1,490,000	1,828,000	1,858,000
Total	52,773,000	55,715,000	54,078,000	55,712,000
Cash benefits				
Sickness:				
Half wages	284,392,000	303,957,000	301,589,000	297,221,000
Half pension fees	6,015,000	8,749,000	7,344,000	9,384,000
Maternity:				
Half wages	53,929,000	47,311,000	41,177,000	39,804,000
Half pension fees	1,132,000	1,385,000	1,169,000	1,261,000
Nursing bonuses	33,847,000	49,803,000	45,901,000	44,177,000
Milk bonuses	1,622,000	1,845,000	1,884,000	2,194,000
Death:				
Death benefits and other	6,824,000	28,980,000	31,327,000	30,978,000
Total	387,761,000	442,030,000	430,391,000	425,019,000
Number of funds	780	777	747	677

The costs of administration of the system in 1935 were 95,000,000 francs, an increase of 10,000,000 francs over 1934.

The annual State contribution to the general system is 263,100,000 francs, divided as follows:

	Francs
Industrial and commercial employees	140, 000, 000
Agricultural employees	93, 000, 000
Pensions	6, 000, 000
Administration	24, 100, 000
Total	263, 100, 000

Miners' Insurance System

Sickness insurance of miners is effected through mutual-aid societies (sociétés de secours), which are governed by the law of June 29, 1894, as amended March 21, 1930. Membership in a mutual society is compulsory for all workers in underground and open mines. The original law provided that quarries may be included, and a decree of 1920 provided that slate quarries should be covered by the insurance system when the size or method of working justifies such inclusion. A decree issued in 1923 provided that the miners' sickness insurance might be extended, either compulsorily or on the application of the parties concerned, to industrial undertakings managed by mine owners if such establishments obtain their raw materials ordinarily and mainly from the mine and are operated in the vicinity of the mine. Extension of the law to such undertakings is made by ministerial decree in each case.

The law covers wage earners and salaried employees without any limit as to wages and salary. Members of the families of insured persons may not become members of the funds, although if the rules of the individual fund so provide they may receive cash benefit, medical attention, and medicines.

Contributions.—The amount of the contribution is fixed by each society, but may not exceed 1.75 percent of the wages of the worker, an equal amount being paid by the employer. The State contributes to the system. An additional contribution amounting to 0.25 percent of wages, with an equal payment by employers, may be required by national decree for the purpose of establishing clinics and medical stations. The maximum wage or salary on which the contribution may be assessed is 15,000 francs. The annual contributions toward the upkeep of the unions are 1 franc per year per member for the national union and 10 francs for the regional unions.

Benefits.—Each mutual society fixes the amount of sickness and death benefits for its members.

Administration.—The Ministry of Public Works has general supervision of the miners' mutual-aid societies. The individual societies are organized on a regional or an industrial basis. The funds are affiliated in a national union managed by a committee of 18 members.

Each society is administered by a council of 6 to 18 persons, of whom two-thirds are elected by the members and one-third designated by the employer.

Statistics of operation.—In 1936 there were 247,035 members of 196 miners' mutual societies, located in 40 Departments and with an average membership of 1,260 persons. Of the total membership 155,682 were underground workers, 88,121 were surface workers, and the remainder were women. The number working various products were: Coal, 212,041; iron, 24,306; other metals, 3,782; salt, 776; bituminous schists and sulphur, 720; and slates, 5,410. The membership of the societies varies considerably: 45 societies have 100 members or less, 104 societies have 101 to 1,000 members, 40 societies have 1,001 to 9,000 members, and 7 societies have memberships of over 9,000.

In 1936, 137,662, or 56 percent, of the membership were ill, the total number of days of sickness amounting to 2,793,649 of which 2,599,486 were reimbursed. The average days of paid illness per sick member were 19. The highest percentage of sickness was found among underground workers.

The total receipts of the sickness-insurance funds during 1936 amounted to 109,167,838 francs, of which 80,034,768 francs were contributed by employers and employees and 7,485,493 francs by the State, the balance being received from a variety of sources such as gifts and legacies, fines, interest, etc. The expenditures totaled 90,093,201 francs, of which 42,351,468 francs were expended for doctors' fees, medicines, hospitalization, funeral payments, etc., and 40,668,421 francs for cash benefits. The cost of administration was 7,073,312 francs.

Seamen's Sickness-Insurance System

All registered seamen (*inscrits maritimes*) in the French merchant marine, as well as civilian ship employees, are compulsorily insured against sickness and accident in the Seamen's Welfare Fund (*Caisse de Prèvoyance*). The insurance applies also to seamen in life-saving stations and to natives in French colonies and protectorates. Foreign seamen are excluded unless there is an agreement granting reciprocal rights between France and the country of origin. Membership in the welfare fund was made compulsory by the law of December 28, 1905, as amended by an act effective January 1, 1930. In addition, each employee is affiliated with the national social-insurance system for sickness and maternity benefits for his wife and children, and for nonoccupational accidents. The sickness-insurance and pension systems for seamen are under one administrative office, although the benefits are covered by separate funds.

Coverage.—The category "inscrits maritimes" includes all officers and seamen engaged in the navigation and maintenance of ships of

the merchant marine and fishing fleet, among whom are the deck crew, pilots, radio operators, carpenters, electricians, engineers, oilers, and stokers. The category "agents du service général" covers other employees on shipboard, including doctors, pursers, clerical staff, nurses, stewards, cooks, etc. Musicians and barbers are included if regularly employed by the shipowner; if they exercise their trade on board without being regularly paid by the shipping company, they are not included. The number of persons insured in the welfare fund in 1937 was 143,000, of whom 129,000 were registered seamen and 14,000 civilian employees.

Contributions.—The contributions are based on the total agreed wages and profits, figured on an annual basis, or the declared wages, and amount to 5.25 percent, of which the employee pays 1.05 percent and the employer 4.20 percent. When the actual wage is not available the contribution is based on a minimum monthly scale ranging from 1,140 francs to 510 francs for officers and seamen in the first five classes; 420 francs for ordinary seamen; 210 francs for apprentice seamen; and 120 francs for cabin boys. The corresponding scale for general employees ranges from 1,140 francs for doctors to 279 francs for unskilled workers.

Benefits.—Insured persons are paid for sickness or accident incurred on shipboard or in line of duty, but not for disability arising from intentional fault, such as drunkenness, or from a nonoccupational risk ashore. A report and claim for benefit must be filed as soon as the insured person has the opportunity to land. The benefits are payable for 4 months after the regular wage stops, at a rate equivalent to one-half of the wage or salary, with a minimum of 13.70 francs per day. Application for invalidity benefits may be made after the sickness benefit expires.

Administration.—The National Disabled Seamen's Institution administers both the sickness and the pension funds. This institution is autonomous and has civil personality, but is under the authority of the Minister of Merchant Marine. It is administered by a committee of 30 members, of whom 10 represent the Government, 10 represent shipowners selected by syndicates or federations, and 10 represent the various grades of merchant-marine employees.

Railwaymen's Sickness Insurance System

Separate systems insure employees of the great railroad systems in France against (1) sickness, and (2) old age and invalidity. There are seven large railway systems. Article 49 of the national social-insurance law of April 30, 1930, modifying the law of April 5, 1928, provided that a separate sickness-insurance system should be established for railway employees within 1 year after the general system went into effect. Accordingly, a decree establishing sickness insurance

for railway employees was issued June 30, 1931, which is the present basic law. Its general effect was to provide permanent railway employees with the sickness benefits of the national social-insurance law, but the railways interpreted it as not extending such benefits to the employee's family. The unions brought a successful action in February 1937, claiming that such benefits were intended by the law. Accordingly a new decree has been drafted, but not yet promulgated, to replace that of June 30, 1931, extending such additional benefits and including persons earning up to 25,000 francs annually.

Coverage.—All permanent employees of either sex whose annual wages are not over 20,000 francs are protected by this insurance.

Auxiliary employees, who number about 20,000 as compared with the 400,000 permanent employees, are not included but are insured under the national social-insurance system for employees of commerce and industry. New employees on probation likewise continue under the general law, not being entitled to advantages under the separate railway system until after two calendar quarters of affiliation for sickness benefits, or after four calendar quarters for maternity benefits. Provision is made for interchange between the general social-insurance system and the special system for railway employees in appropriate cases.

Contributions.—The employee pays no contributions. The railway advances whatever funds are necessary to pay the claims of its employees for benefits accorded by the national social-insurance law. The State makes no direct contribution, but as in the case of old-age pensions, it must be noted that the State makes up operating deficits and can be regarded as bearing the entire burden of sickness insurance for railway employees.

Benefits.—Sickness and maternity benefits are equivalent to those provided by the national social-insurance law (see pp. 626–628). The wife and dependent children of an employee were not granted benefits prior to a court decision of February 1937, confirming their rights to such benefits. Employees earning over 20,000 francs annually are, by the general statutes of the railway, entitled when sick to 3 months at full pay, a further 3 months at half pay, and thereafter the invalidity benefits accrue.

Administration.—The central administration of each railway has the responsibility of sickness insurance of its employees, subject to supervision of the Ministries of Labor and Public Works. The recently formed National Railway Co. will consolidate the railway social-insurance funds after January 1, 1938.

Statistics of operation.—The number of permanent employees of the railroads was 389,470 at the end of 1935, having decreased gradually from 438,673 in 1932 owing to economy measures. These employees lost 4,275,600 days from illness in 1935, or an average of

10.7 days per employee (exclusive of accidents). The average illness was 9.6 days in 1934 and 10.7 days in 1933.

The cost of sickness insurance to the railways was estimated as follows for 1932 (subsequent statistics not being available):

	Total cost (francs)	*Average cost (francs)*
Cash benefits	136, 000, 000	333
Medical benefits, etc	46, 000, 000	113
Maternity benefits to woman employees	10, 800, 000	
Total	192, 800, 000	

This amount will be considerably increased by sickness and maternity benefits to the wives and children of permanent employees.

EXTENSION OF UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE IN GREAT BRITAIN [1]

THE BRITISH Unemployment Insurance Act, 1935, excepted employment in domestic service from insurance, except where the trade or business providing the employment was carried on for the purposes of gain. Regulations issued by the Minister of Labor, December 22, 1937, in accordance with the terms of the 1935 law, provide for the inclusion also of persons employed in domestic service in any trade or business which is not carried on for the purposes of gain. Domestic workers in private families are not covered by unemployment insurance, and the present regulations exclude horticultural workers, who are already insured under the agricultural scheme, and certain other classes of outdoor private domestic servants which the Government intends to bring into insurance under the agricultural system.

The principal classes covered by the new regulations are workers in what is described as institutional domestic service such as non-proprietary clubs, the Navy, Army, and Air Force canteens, non-residential educational institutions, and hospitals. Also included are such outdoor private domestic servants as chauffeurs, gamekeepers, and grooms. The new regulations will have the effect of bringing into unemployment insurance, under the general scheme, about 170,000 domestic workers.

[1] Great Britain, The Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), January 1938, p. 7; Reports of the Unemployment Insurance Statutory Committee, London, 1937.

Industrial and Labor Conditions

MINIMUM WAGE FOR SUGAR-BEET LABOR, 1937

SINCE publication of the article on wages, employment conditions, and welfare of sugar-beet laborers appearing in the February issue of the Monthly Labor Review, the Agricultural Adjustment Administration has announced the determination of minimum wage rates to be paid for harvesting the 1937 crop of sugar beets in order that producers may qualify for benefit payments under the provisions of the Sugar Act of 1937.[1]

This determination was made following a series of public hearings in beet-growing areas and applies only to work on the 1937 crop done after September 1, 1937, the effective date of the act. It prescribes minimum rates, on a sliding scale, which are governed by yield per acre and by wages previously agreed upon between the individual worker and the producer. The maximum increase in the minimum rate over the existing rate, 12 cents per ton, amounts to approximately 15 percent of the existing harvesting rates, according to the Agricultural Adjustment Administration. This increase, however, will not apply under certain circumstances. The determination reads as follows:

> * * * a fair and reasonable wage rate with respect to the harvesting, after September 1, 1937, of the 1937 crop of sugar beets, which rate for any farm shall be not less than 12 cents per net short ton harvested, in addition to the total amount agreed upon between the producer and laborer, *Provided, however,* That a producer shall be deemed to have complied with the requirements of section 301 (b) of the Sugar Act of 1937 in regard to fair and reasonable wages if rates have been paid of not less than $7.50 per acre for harvesting sugar beets on farms yielding an average of 7 net short tons or less per acre, and in addition thereto 75 cents per net short ton, and fractions thereof in proportion, for each ton harvested per acre for the farm in excess of an average of 7 net short tons per acre; and *Provided further,* That the foregoing shall not be construed to mean that a producer may qualify for payment who has not paid in full the amount agreed upon between the producer and the laborer.

Wage rates for beet labor prevailing in various beet-growing areas prior to this determination are shown in the article appearing in the February 1938 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

[1] Agricultural Adjustment Administration. Press releases of January 21 and January 26, 1938.

MULTIPLE-SHIFT PLANT OPERATION

ONE-FIFTH of 130 companies employing 228,633 persons on multiple-shift operation in October 1937 operated continuous-process plants. The remaining four-fifths were operating continuously from choice, owing mainly to some temporary increase in market demand. The National Industrial Conference Board,[1] which made the survey here reviewed, classified the concerns with multiple-shift operation by industry and inquired into the number and length of work periods and the methods of assigning and remunerating employees for work on the least desirable shifts.

Of the 26 companies working continuously as a general policy, 12 had fewer and the remaining 14 had more than 1,000 employees on their rolls; for noncontinuous-operation plants there was a relatively higher proportion of small concerns; that is, 60 out of 104 had fewer than 1,000 employees. In rating plants as operating continuously, however, the Board points out, not all employees are necessarily engaged in shift work. Certain departments or practically the entire productive force may be so employed. Special groups, including maintenance men and common and construction labor, may frequently work only in the daytime. Work on night shifts was reported for 26 percent of the employees in continuous-operation plants and 17 percent of those in noncontinuous operation.

In table 1 the 130 companies covered by the survey are classified by industry and kind of operation.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Companies and Employees, by Industry and Kind of Operation*

Industry	Continuous operation		Noncontinuous operation	
	Number of companies	Number of employees	Number of companies	Number of employees
Total	26	61,317	104	167,316
Automobile parts			5	3,610
Chemicals	6	8,669		
Electrical appliances			10	20,874
Food products	2	4,581	5	[1] 1,650
Iron and steel	3	12,485	5	[1] 2,173
Machines and machine tools			23	[1] 47,054
Metal products, other			23	32,522
Paper and its products	4	2,867	1	750
Textiles and clothing	1	4,600	22	50,358
Unclassified	10	28,115	10	8,325

[1] One company did not state number of employees.

In the continuous-operation group, the iron and steel and chemicals industries led in number of employees. In contrast, the companies employing large numbers and classed as noncontinuous which were

[1] National Industrial Conference Board, Inc. Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 3: Multiple-Shift Operation. New York, 1937.

working on a shift basis were led by a consumers' goods industry—textiles and clothing. This industry accounted for 50,358 of the 167,316 employees in the group. The heavy industries followed, machine and machine tools being next in numerical importance, with 47,054 employees.

Under multiple-shift operation the 8-hour day and 5-day week predominate in the plants investigated, as is shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Companies by Kind of Operation and by Daily and Weekly Work Schedules*

Work schedule	Day shift		Night shift	
	Continuous-operation companies	Noncontinuous-operation companies	Continuous-operation companies	Noncontinuous-operation companies
Days or hours per week:				
4½ days			1	1
5 days	14	78	12	88
5½ days		11		1
5 and 6 days	1		1	
6 days	9	8	10	7
40 hours	1	1	1	1
45 hours		1		1
Dependent on requirements	1		1	
Daily hours of work:				
6 hours	2	[1] 2	3	[1] 2
6 and 8 hours	2		1	
7 hours		1		1
7 or 8 hours				1
7½ hours		1		[1] 2
8 hours	[2] 18	[2] 75	[2] 19	[2] 73
8½ hours	[4] 1	[4] 2		[4] 1
8.7 hours		1		
8 hours, 40 minutes		[4] 1		[4] 1
8 hours 45 minutes		[4] 1		
9 hours		[3] 8		4
9½ hours		1		1
10 hours		2		8
11.7 hours		1		
12 hours				1
12.3 hours				1
Miscellaneous [5]	3	8	2	8

[1] 1 company did not report whether lunch period is included.
[2] 6 companies did not report whether lunch period is included.
[3] 8 companies did not report whether lunch period is included.
[4] Not reported whether lunch period is included.
[5] Companies with different hours on weekdays and Saturdays, for men and women, or on different shifts.

Schedules in excess of 5 days per week were found to exist more frequently in continuous than in noncontinuous plants. Where the longer shifts were enforced in noncontinuous-operating plants, they were more common for day workers than for night workers.

Practically all the continuous-operation companies (25) had adopted multiple shifts as a permanent policy. The noncontinuous-operation companies, however, stated that the policy was permanent in 67 plants, of a temporary nature in 30, and in 7 permanent in some departments and temporary in others. A 3-shift system was being applied by 20 of the continuous-operation companies, a 4-shift system by 3, and in the remaining 3, the number of shifts worked varied from 2 to 4. A 2-shift system was used by 54 noncontinuous-operation

companies, a 3-shift system by 26, and a 4-shift system by 4; in 17 of the noncontinuous-operation companies, 2 and sometimes 3 shifts were worked, and in 3 the number worked varied from 1 to 3.

In continuous-operation companies employees were rotated between shifts more often than permanently assigned to particular shifts, 19 companies employing the former method and 2 the latter. Noncontinuous plants employed the permanent-assignment system more often than rotation between shifts, 33 companies using the former system and 33 the latter. Where rotation is practised, changes are customarily made weekly or biweekly, and in a few instances at less frequent intervals.

The study further disclosed that it is not unusual to pay slightly higher rates for night work or to offer other inducements to make such employment less unattractive. Table 3 gives the extent and character of extra compensation for night shifts.

TABLE 3.—*Extra Compensation for Night Shifts, by Kind of Operation of Companies*

Extra-compensation policy	Continuous operation companies	Noncontinuous operation companies	Extra-compensation policy	Continuous operation companies	Noncontinuous operation companies
Regular compensation	20	70	Amount of additional compensation—Continued.		
Additional compensation	6	34	15 percent after 6 p. m.	----	1
Amount of additional compensation:			Put in larger bonus class	----	1
1 cent per hour	----	1	Amount not reported	1	2
2 cents per hour	----	1	Other inducements:		
2½ cents per hour	1	----	None offered	18	68
3 cents per hour	----	1	Not reported	8	22
5 cents per hour	1	[1] 6	Paid for lunch period	----	[3] 3
6 cents per hour	1	----	Affords better week-end	----	2
10 cents per hour	----	1	Chance to advance to day shift by seniority	----	3
2–4 cents per hour	----	1	May work longer hours [4]	----	1
5 percent	----	[1] 10	More overtime [4]	----	4
7 percent	----	1	Smoking permitted; lunch during working hours; time for street-car connections	----	1
10 percent	----	[2] 7			
20 percent	----	1			
First night shift 5 percent; second night shift, 10 percent	2	----			

[1] Given as a bonus in 1 company.
[2] Only after 6 p. m. in 1 company; 10 percent on base pay as bonus in 1 company.
[3] Also work longer hours in 1 company.
[4] Makes higher earnings possible.

PART-TIME FARMING IN THE SOUTHEAST [1]

THE combination of farming with a job that brings a cash wage has long existed in the United States—particularly in rural areas where the presence of natural resources has led to the growth of industries and of industrial communities. The widespread ownership of automobiles and the extension of improved roads have contributed to the development of combined farming-industrial employment in

[1] Extract from Works Progress Administration, Research Monograph IX: Part-Time Farming in the Southeast, Washington, 1937.

the Southeast by placing residents of outlying rural districts in touch with industrial centers.

The long depression in agriculture, and more recently, the depression in industry have had an important influence on the growth of part-time farming in the Southeast. In recent years industrial workers have sought to supplement their reduced wages in industry with part-time farming, farmers have been induced to supplement their reduced farm incomes with off-the-farm employment, and many persons already engaged in combined farming-industrial employment have extended their farming activities. One-half of the families surveyed had been carrying on part-time farming for 6 continuous years prior to 1935, however, indicating that part-time farming enterprises were not undertaken purely as a result of the depression.

Part-time farming in Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina is at present carried on by workers in all of the major industries of the region—cotton-textile manufacturing, lumber naval stores, and coal and iron mining—as well as by workers in other manufacturing and mechanical industries, in transportation and communication industries, in trade, and in public service. In none of the industries, with the possible exception of coal and iron mining, is the labor involved so heavy as to discourage the additional work required by a farm enterprise, although the nature of available employment and the lack of available transportation facilities in some urban areas, such as in Charleston, discourage daily commutation of farm operators from remote rural areas.

The survey of combined farming-industrial employment in five major subregions of the Southeast showed that economically the part-time farm is an advantage. It requires in investment in house and land little more than ordinarily would be spent in housing; it requires only a small amount of capital for equipment or livestock; and the expenditure for seed, fertilizer, or hired labor is negligible.

A part-time farm enterprise undertaken on as small a scale as those found in the Eastern Cotton Belt, however, does not give the operator and his family economic self-sufficiency. At best, it only supplements a cash wage from employment in industry, and the possibility of carrying on part-time farming activities successfully is contingent upon possession of off-the-farm employment.

In all of the subregions, the part-time farms surveyed were small, and the enterprises were conducted mainly to produce food for home consumption. Most of the farms surveyed had less than 5 acres of cropland, and almost half of them had less than 2 acres. The small acreage was sufficient, however, for the farm to produce a definite contribution to the family living—not only fresher and more abundant products for the diet, but also a monetary saving in grocery bills

during the summer months that ranged from a few dollars to as much as $20 per month.

The value of products consumed by typical part-time farmers during the year ranged from about $70 by part-time farmers who had only a garden to about $400 by those with a garden, a cow, several hogs, and a small flock of poultry. Since the majority of the part-time farmers surveyed made less than $500 a year at their principal off-the-farm employment, the farm's contribution to family living was an important one.

Although most of the part-time farmers kept a cow, a hog or two, and a flock of chickens, a vegetable garden was the activity that was most general. On half of the farms, gardens produced three or more summer vegetables for 3, 4, and 5 months. Many of the gardens were only one-quarter acre in size. Few of the farmers reported three or more vegetables for as long as 8 months, in spite of the long growing season throughout the eastern Cotton Belt and the small expense attached to garden production. Most part-time farm families were obviously unfamiliar with winter vegetables, but some garden products, such as sweet and Irish potatoes and corn, were stored by two-thirds of the families, while vegetables were canned by three-fifths of the households, thereby prolonging the period of the garden's usefulness through the winter months.

In view of the actual saving in dollars and cents that was made possible by the part-time farm's contribution of vegetables, pork, dairy products, and livestock products, the operators on the whole did not feel that their farm enterprises took a burdensome amount of time. From 3 to 5½ hours a day were required in farm work from April through August on the white noncommercial part-time farms. Although in some cases the head of the family did all of the work alone, the farm tasks were usually shared by members of the family. Few of the part-time farmers spent as much as $15 for hired labor in 1934.

The part-time farmers' investment in farm buildings and land was small, amounting to less than $2,000 in over one-half of the cases surveyed. Only a few of the farmers had holdings valued at more than $5,000, and these were commercial farmers, for the most part, who produced some cash crop for the market or carried on some distinctly commercial livestock enterprise.

Investment in implements and machinery was practically negligible, most of the farmers owning only a few simple hand tools, such as hoes and rakes. In most cases, only the part-time farmers operating 10 acres of land or more owned horses or mules. The limited cropland on most enterprises prevented the growing of sufficient feed for work animals, and besides, the small enterprises common to the majority of part-time farmers did not warrant ownership of a mule.

In order to carry on farming activities, part-time farmers on the average were forced to live slightly farther from their places of work than were the nonfarming industrial workers. But residence at a greater distance from an employment center placed the workers in only one subregion at a disadvantage in securing work, as was shown by a comparison of parttime farmers and nonfarming industrial workers with respect to rates of pay, total earnings, and number of days employed. Further evidence that part-time farmers on the whole were not at a disadvantage with respect to employment opportunities was given by the fact that part-time farmers and nonfarming industrial workers were closely parallel in distribution in the industries of each subregion, as well as in the proportions of their numbers who were skilled and unskilled workers.

The suburban or open-country residence that was involved in a part-time farming enterprise in some subregions carried with it some definite advantages. Housing cost part-time farm families who lived in the suburbs or open country less than it would have in town. Since families of part-time farmers were larger than those of nonfarming industrial workers, the lower rents, especially for large families, were one of the advantages that accompanied part-time farming. Nearly one-fourth of the part-time farm families consisted of seven or more persons. Part-time farmers' homes were larger than those of nonfarming industrial workers, but because of the larger families, there was slightly more overcrowding in the farm group.

Lack of modern conveniences was one of the disadvantages that frequently accompanied part-time farming, because power lines and water mains were not generally extended into sparsely settled rural areas. Electric lights, running water, and bathrooms were often lacking.

Home ownership was more common among part-time farmers than among the nonfarming industrial workers, but a large proportion of tenancy existed even among part-time farmers, and especially among Negro part-time farmers.

From the social viewpoint, too, the part-time farmer's life had its advantages and disadvantages. In general, more part-time farm than nonfarming industrial families participated in organized social and community life. Also, the extent of participation of part-time farmers was greater than that of nonfarmers in almost every type of activity available to them, which was surprising in view of the greater distances many of them had to go to attend meetings. More members of part-time farm than nonfarm families were in positions of leadership as represented by officeholding, and enumerators in more than one area remarked that the part-time farmers enjoyed a higher social status than that of the nonfarming industrial workers.

Fewer social organizations, however, were available to part-time farmers. Inasmuch as such groups stimulate social intercourse and interest in community affairs, the lack of social organizations was particularly disadvantageous to young people in part-time farm families.

The present survey shows that while part-time farming can be a decided financial aid, in the sense that it supplements wages from industrial employment, no blanket endorsement for developing or extending present part-time farming or for encouraging new part-time farming enterprises may be given. Because a fairly small part-time farm enterprise alone is not enough to give self-sufficiency to the operator, part-time farming cannot be considered as an economic "way out" for unemployed persons or for families on relief, although a part-time farm, coupled with even a small cash wage, would alleviate the acute distress of many families now on relief. Part-time farming cannot be a solution for unemployment in the eastern Cotton Belt, because possibilities of increased industrial activities which would provide the necessary cash wage are slight. Consequently, part-time farming as an activity can be encouraged only where industry has sufficiently recovered from the depression to offer satisfactory wages and hours to its workers, or where future prospects for an industry's development are promising.

FOREIGN WORKERS IN GERMANY [1]

IN 1935–36 there were almost a quarter of a million foreign workers employed in Germany. Shortly before the World War, when German industries and trades were booming, foreign workers in Germany numbered more than 1 million persons, but by 1933–34, due to such factors as the World War, inflation, and the world depression, the number had decreased to 176,115. During the present German regime, with the boom in the war industries, the number of foreign workers employed in Germany has been increasing. In 1934–35 it had risen to 208,777, and in 1935–36 had reached 227,384.

The following table from official sources shows the industrial distribution of the foreign workers in 1935–36. Only 24 percent were engaged in agriculture, gardening, animal industry, forestry, and fisheries combined, more than three-fourths being employed in industry, trade, and service occupations. Unskilled laborers formed about 8 percent of the total foreign workers, while approximately 92 percent were skilled workers. Nearly 17 percent were salaried employees and about 83 percent were wage earners.

[1] Data are from Germany, Statistisches Reichsamt, Statistisches Jahrbuch, 1934, 1935 and 1936. Berlin.

Industrial Distribution of Foreign Workers Employed in Germany During Year Ending March 31, 1936

Industrial or trade group	Number of foreign workers		
	Total	Males	Females
Wage earners			
Agriculture, gardening, and animal industry	53,043	34,703	18,340
Forestry and fisheries	610	538	72
Mining, salt, and peat works	10,536	10,389	147
Stone and earthen industry	9,094	7,357	1,737
Iron- and steel works	16,886	15,983	903
Musical instruments and toys	368	264	104
Chemical industry	550	388	162
Rubber and asbestos industry	188	96	92
Spinning industry	16,217	6,507	9,710
Paper working	1,844	904	940
Leather working	1,082	960	122
Woodworking	4,428	4,117	311
Food and confectionery	4,393	3,440	953
Clothing industry	8,060	3,453	4,607
Health and physical culture	1,192	757	435
Building trades	9,222	9,217	5
Printing	1,236	1,020	216
Cleaning and disinfecting	395	131	264
Theater, music, and films	359	308	51
Hotels and restaurants	3,576	2,034	1,542
Transportation	8,362	7,405	957
Domestic service	18,825	278	18,547
Unskilled laborers	17,445	12,507	4,938
Machinists and firemen	1,045	1,035	10
Total wage earners	188,956	123,791	65,165
Salaried employees			
Commercial and office work	22,451	11,203	11,248
Technical employees	6,608	6,473	135
Other employees	9,369	6,094	3,275
Total salaried employees	38,428	23,770	14,658
Grand total, wage earners and salaried employees	227,384	147,561	79,823

Cooperation

COOPERATIVE BURIAL ASSOCIATIONS, 1936

THE PROVISION of burial service on a cooperative basis is comparatively new and has as yet been little developed. Hard times and the high cost of living cause the formation of cooperative associations whose main purpose is the supply of food and other household supplies without profit. The high cost of dying and what seemed exorbitant charges for funeral service were the motives for the formation of the cooperative burial associations now in existence.

Coal mining is a hazardous occupation and funeral expenses form an item of considerable importance in mining regions. It is not surprising, therefore, that the first burial association of which the Bureau of Labor Statistics has record was started in 1915 by a group of coal miners organized in a local union in Illinois. At least four other labor groups—composed largely of coal miners—formed similar associations in the same State within the next few years. These organizations, though cooperative in the sense of being nonprofit, have in other respects more of the character of union than of cooperative enterprises.

In the late 1920's the farmers in Iowa and Minnesota became interested in the provision of funerals at more moderate prices and, with local townspeople, established burial associations at a number of places. Recently some of the farm journals have expressed their favorable interest in the formation of these associations, and in Nebraska local Farmers' Union groups have started two associations, each of which is county-wide in scope.

The early organizations usually confined their activities to a single town and its immediate vicinity. Most of the later associations have been authorized to do business over one or several counties. For obvious reasons, a large membership is desirable in a burial association if it is to be successful.[1] This is one line of activity entirely dependent upon conditions outside the control of the organization. The volume of business being dependent upon the death rate, no amount of advertising or sales campaigns will increase it. Only a large membership will insure a sufficiently large number of funerals to

[1] It was estimated, on the basis of the Iowa associations' experience, that a burial association, to be successful from the beginning, should start with at least 500 members and capital of at least $5,000 (Consumers' Guide, Washington, July 26, 1937).

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make operation worth while. The tendency, therefore, has been toward a greater and greater coverage of membership and territory served.

Organized cooperators entered this field several years ago, when a group of cooperative associations operating stores and creameries throughout the Mesabi Range district in Minnesota obtained a charter for the Range Cooperative Burial Association. Shortly afterwards another group of associations in Aitkin, Carlton, Pine, and St. Louis Counties applied for a charter for the Northland Cooperative Burial Association. Opposition to the formation of this association was manifested by the private undertakers' association in the State, which brought suit questioning whether such a cooperative association was legal under the Minnesota law, on the ground that cooperative associations which were members of the burial association were not the "ultimate consumers" of the service. After a long period of controversy the case was decided in favor of the cooperatives. A charter was granted and the Northland Cooperative Burial Association began operations January 1, 1937. Pending settlement of this case, no attempt had been made to go ahead with the plans for the Range Association. In July 1937, it amalgamated with the Range Cooperative Federation, becoming a department of that Federation. Burial service was inaugurated on September 1, 1937.[2]

This federated type of association makes burial service available over a wide territory. For the local associations reporting in the Bureau's survey, the average membership in 1936 was 883, whereas the two federated associations each represent a combined individual membership of from 5,500 to 6,000.

In the local type of association, the individual becomes a member through the payment of a membership fee. This fee represents a nontransferable family membership and is valid even after the death of the parents, as long as there are minor children. As each child becomes of age, his right to service under the family membership lapses.

In the federated associations the individual members of the local associations which own the burial association are entitled to utilize the burial services of the association by virtue of their affiliation with the local cooperative association, upon payment of a small fee. In the Northland Association this fee is 50 cents per year.

The local associations in Iowa and Minnesota both have a central federation—the Iowa State Federation of Burial Associations and the Northwestern Cooperative Burial Association. The former is reported to have in membership all 10 Iowa local associations, and the latter has 8 member associations. These federations carry on no

[2] It was reported late in 1937 that a third federation, to serve members of cooperatives in the Marquette, Mich., district, was being planned.

business activities. Their duties are to protect the interests of the local associations, be on the watch for legislation detrimental to cooperatives, provide speakers, do organizational and educational work, and serve as a clearing house of experience among the members.

Data for Reporting Associations

As part of its general survey of cooperative associations in the United States,[3] the Bureau of Labor Statistics obtained information for burial associations. On the basis of these reports it is calculated that the 42 associations known to have been in existence at the end of 1936 had an estimated membership of about 27,000 and did a business in that year estimated to have been about $170,000. These associations are all in the North Central States—Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska, and South Dakota.

As already noted, the first association of record was started in 1915. Of 33 other associations for which the date of organization is known, 1 was started in 1915, 3 in 1921, 2 in 1924, 2 in 1927, 3 in 1928, 5 in 1929, 4 in 1930, 4 in 1931, 5 in 1932, 3 in 1934, and 1 in 1935. Their average age was slightly over 8 years.

COOPERATIVE PRACTICE

The reporting associations, without exception, operate on the basis of one vote per member. Generally there is no limitation on membership, any family in the vicinity being eligible for membership on payment of the required fee. One association, however, reports that it desires no new members at present because of its limited operating facilities. Two others limit their total membership to 1,000 and 2,000 respectively, but this limit is far from having been reached in either association.

These associations depart from the Rochdale practice of "business at prevailing prices." All of those furnishing returns make charges below those current in the community. For that reason, the "net earnings" reported were lower than would have been the case had they followed Rochdale practice.

Only one association reported returning a patronage refund. The amount so returned was not stated, but the rate of return was 10 percent. Mainly because the margin between actual cost and the charge to the patron is small, the practice of return of patronage refunds is not common among the burial associations; the member has already had the equivalent of the refund in the form of lower prices.

[3] Summary data for several groups of associations have already appeared in the Monthly Labor Review, as follows: Housing associations, November 1936 (p. 1146); electricity associations, January 1938 (p. 110); and telephone associations, February 1938 (p. 392). Reports of spot studies in certain localities were given in the September 1937 (Cleveland), October 1937 (Chicago), and December 1937 (northern Wisconsin) issues of this publication.

MEMBERSHIP

Of 42 associations known to have been in existence at the end of 1936, usable reports were received for 19.

A combined membership of 15,006 was reported, an average of 833 per association. The individual associations ranged in size from 50 to 4,000 members; they were distributed as follows:

	Number of associations
Less than 100 members	2
100 and under 250 members	1
250 and under 500 members	5
500 and under 750 members	5
750 and under 1,000 members	2
1,000 and under 2,000 members	1
2,000 and under 3,000 members	—
3,000 members and over	2

The associations for which membership data are available for a period of years show an almost unbroken record of expansion. One association which started with 10 members in 1930, had increased to 800 by the next year, to 1,030 in 1933, to 1,050 in 1935, and to 1,260 in 1936. Another rose from 400 members in 1931 to 3,530 in 1936. The associations reporting for both 1935 and 1936 had an increase of 672 members, or 5.7 percent; not one had had a loss in membership.

STATISTICS OF OPERATION

The reporting associations conducted 595 funerals during the year, or an average of about 34 each. Two of the smaller associations handled only 6 funerals each. The largest number (91) was handled by a 6-year-old association with some 1,200 members.

An aggregate income of $63,189 was reported, of which $4,432 represented net savings.

The following table summarizes, by States, the 1936 operations of the associations reporting. Bills and accounts payable, not shown in the table, aggregated $5,455—reported by 12 associations. Six associations reported that they had no outstanding obligations.

Most of these are nonstock associations operating on a membership basis. The cost of membership is generally $5 or $10, but in two associations reporting the membership fee is only $1. Generally this is the only regular charge, but one organization (with a $10 membership fee) also charges dues of 25 cents per month; it states, however, that these dues are "not compulsory."

A number of the associations provide that upon the lapsing of a family membership, the membership fee shall be transferred to the "free burial fund." This fund is commonly maintained by members' annual contributions of 25 cents each, and is used to assist in paying burial expenses for needy members.

Statistics of 1936 Operations of Cooperative Burial Associations, by States

Item	All States	Illinois	Iowa	Minnesota	Nebraska	South Dakota
Total known associations	42	4	10	20	2	6
Total number of reporting associations	19	1	3	12	2	1
Membership:						
Number of associations reporting	17	1	3	11	1	1
Number of members	15,006	4,000	1,935	5,481	60	3,530
Average per association	883	4,000	645	498	60	3,530
Number of funerals:						
Number of associations reporting	17	1	2	11	2	1
Total funerals	595	75	41	427	22	30
Business done:						
Number of associations reporting	12		1	9	1	1
Amount	$63,189		$4,170	$54,171	$928	$3,920
Net earnings:						
Number of associations reporting	10		1	7	1	1
Amount	$4,432		$73	$3,140	$1,023	$196
Share capital:[1]						
Number of associations reporting	12		2	8	1	1
Amount	$31,724		$8,634	$18,505	$1,055	$3,530
Total resources:						
Number of associations reporting	12		2	8	1	1
Amount	$62,915		$14,674	$41,656	$1,145	$5,440
Net worth:						
Number of associations reporting	11		2	7	1	1
Amount	$50,109		$12,705	$30,909	$1,055	$5,440

[1] Includes paid memberships, in nonstock associations, where amount is known.

SERVICES, OPERATING FACILITIES, AND CHARGES

The provision of caskets and hearse service is practically universal among these associations, and undertaking service is also common. Other, less usual, services are the furnishing of tombstones, cemetery plots, burial vaults, and ambulance. Of 16 associations reporting, all provide caskets, 14 provide hearse, and 12 embalming, 4 deal in tombstones, 3 in burial vaults, 3 have an ambulance, and 1 owns a cemetery.

Of 14 associations reporting as to operating facilities, 13 operate a funeral parlor and the same number have their own hearse; one association rents the hearse each time it is needed.

It is a common provision in the bylaws of the burial associations that business shall be done "at the lowest practicable cost" consistent with the safety of the business. One organization sets the cost of funerals thus: "The cost of the funeral shall consist of the cost of casket and other supplies, plus the funeral director's charges and use of hearse, plus a surcharge sufficient to meet the current operating expenses of the association and other essential costs including the reserves required by law."

Charges.—For the associations reporting, the average cost per funeral to the patron was $175. Classified by average cost the distribution was as follows:

	Number of associations
Less than $100	3
$100 and under $150	3
$150 and under $200	5
$200 and under $250	3
Over $250	1

The foregoing are the prices charged to members. The practice as regards nonmembers varies. Three associations state that they do no business with nonmembers. Two allow nonmembers to utilize their services but require from them at the time of the burial the regular membership fee, thus admitting them to membership. One association extends its facilities to nonmembers at the same prices as charged to members. The remaining associations, however, charge higher rates—10 percent higher in one case and 20 percent in another.

Each association was asked to estimate the amount the patron saved per funeral, by utilizing the services of the cooperative. The replies ranged from $15 to $400; the average was $160. One association pointed out that its estimate of saving was based upon prices prevailing before the establishment of the cooperative association.

The 14 associations reporting employed in 1936 some 25 persons, and expended $15,472 in wages. All of these employed an undertaker but only 2 were on a full-time basis; in 12 cases the undertaker was employed on contract. In 7 cases he also acted as manager of the association; in 6 associations a manager was employed in addition.

Sources of supply.—The early associations experienced some difficulty in obtaining supplies—embalming fluid, caskets, etc. This was known, in a few cases, to be due to pressure from private undertakers. Several years ago arrangements were made with a small independent casket factory, and many of the burial associations, notably in Minnesota, now obtain their supplies through that company.

Of the associations reporting, seven said that none of their supplies were obtained from cooperative sources. Seven purchased at least part of their supplies from cooperatives; of these one purchased in this way 75 percent, one 80 percent, one 90 percent, and two 100 percent.

Education and Training

TRAINING SCHOOL FOR HOUSEHOLD EMPLOYEES

IN THE SUMMER of 1936 the Philadelphia Institute on Household Occupations was established, under the sponsorship of the Young Women's Christian Association. The purpose of the school is to analyze the reasons for the failure of housework to attract girls, in order to eliminate the causes for this failure and to give young women training in household employment adequate to meet the most exacting demands. In brief, the objective of the institute is to define and raise standards in domestic service.

According to the article from which the present brief account of this new venture is taken,[1] "the obvious disadvantages of household employment are long hours; rates of pay based upon the budget or more often the inclination of the employer; limited time for any social or personal life; and the need for intelligence, resourcefulness, initiative, and physical vigor not demanded in other jobs where the girl could make the same money working fewer hours."

The institute seeks to give the girls not only technical training, but self-assurance and balance. The immediate supervisor is a young woman who has been in private domestic service. Her standards are excellent and practical. The director of the institute has had a variety of experience and takes a great interest in her work. White and Negro girls who have the physical and mental qualifications which the school requires and which employers demand are given free training and placement. If employers are willing to pay a minimum hourly rate of 25 cents—$8 for 32 hours per week, and $12 for 48 hours per week—the institute is prepared to furnish them competent, high-class workers.

The institute's code provisions have been formulated with a view to educating the employer to the idea of a minimum rate per hour for efficient work and of purchasing only so much of such service as her budget permits, "instead of expecting full-time service for whatever she thinks she can afford to pay."

The institute is located in Philadelphia, in a nine-room building. After 3 months' training the girls are ready to take up the occupation for which there is the heaviest call—general work in a one-worker

[1] Woman's Press, New York, February 1938, pp. 74-75: Housework as a Profession, by Elizabeth S. West.

household. They prepare and serve breakfast and dinner to the three professional women who live at the institute. In this normal home situation the pupils get practice in all kinds of housework.

The estimated cost of a scholarship per girl for the preemployment course is approximately $50. This amount covers the midday meal at the institute, uniforms, and medical examination.

In the first 6 weeks principles and procedures are taught, the training being based on the six major home occupations listed below. Each girl is assigned to one household occupation and carries through its duties for a week.

1. *Cook.*—Prepares luncheons for the group, takes care of the kitchen and food storage, checks supplies, and orders food for the meals as her experience warrants, accompanies the instructor to the market when possible, cleans the kitchen daily, and weekly arranges the cupboards and rechecks the supplies.
2. *Waitress.*—Serves the luncheon for the group, answers the telephone and doorbell, cleans the silver, and washes the dishes, except the pots and pans.
3. *Laundress.*—Does the laundry for the institute. This includes the girls' uniforms, the instructors' uniforms, the table and house linen, such as men's shirts, brought in for special practice.
4. *Chambermaid.*—Does the daily bedmaking and daily straightening of the bedrooms and wiping up of the bathrooms. The weekly cleaning is left to the general cleaner.
5. *General cleaner.*—Does the weekly cleaning of the bedrooms as well as the daily and weekly cleaning of the living rooms of the apartments and the downstairs of the house, except the kitchen.
6. *Child's nurse.*—Takes complete charge of the babies brought to the institute daily by their mothers.

After this preliminary training each student is delegated to act as houseworker for the institute for 1 week on a 7-hour day basis which begins at 12:30 p. m. She has the complete care of the three apartments on the first floor, which includes bedmaking; general cleaning of living rooms, bedrooms, and baths; and personal laundry for occupants. She also has the responsibility of preparing and serving dinner at 6 p. m. for the occupants of the house and their guests—a group ranging from two to six in number. The schedule provides for 30 minutes of her own time for her own evening meal. The teacher generally plans the meals, and a book containing the menus is left in the kitchen for the trainee's use. Sometimes, however, a girl is allowed to plan the meals herself if she has special interest and aptitude in this line.

When at the beginning of the second 6 weeks one girl is made responsible for the general housework, the remaining members of the class are freed from some of their previous duties and receive special training on their weak points. They continue, however, their work in the parts of the house not covered in the one girl's assignment, namely, the office, the hallway, and the downstairs floor of the building.

The cooks are expected to prepare luncheon for the group, and the waitresses at this period of training are given instructions regarding different types of table service. The trainees take turns in coming to the institute to prepare breakfast. A number of special projects, among them the making and hanging of curtains, are carried out by the group, and the girls are taken to visit various exhibits of interest to them as prospective household employees.

The follow-up of the worker on the job by the director is one of the most important features of the program. Because of the individual character of each job requirement, the necessity for an adjustable agreement, or "live" contract, is recognized. Therefore, a signed written agreement is not required at the time of placement. A periodic check-up is made by the institute (the first at the end of the first week of employment; the second at the end of the first month of employment; and subsequently every 3 months thereafter) to determine what adjustments within the broad outlines of the code are necessary and where, if at all, the training program has fallen short.

Girls securing jobs through the institute call at the school to report on their general progress or to check up recipes. Workers who have employment but need retraining to meet the standards demanded by their employers before the employers will conform to the code provisions, may take advantage of the institute's training facilities either on their own time or on time allowed them by their employers. No specified course is available for the convenience of these workers. They attend the school to develop special skills and to learn how to work on a schedule, and they leave when they accomplish their object.

Sometimes employers are entertained at teas at the school, and woman household heads who have employment problems come to the training school for discussion and counsel. Experienced teachers at the institute are ready to aid individual employers to organize their households according to schedule.

Complete records are maintained for each worker the institute places, in order to find out whether she adjusts to housework; if not, the reasons therefor; and whether she remains in domestic service as a vocation or goes into another occupational field.

DEVELOPMENT OF AMERICAN INDIAN ARTS AND CRAFTS

THE American Indian, in the opinion of the Indian Arts and Crafts Board, has outstanding ability as a craftsman, but unfortunately his craft products have been put on the market in a haphazard way and his monetary returns have been meager. To build up this potential resource and to increase the proceeds from it, while upholding its integrity, an act was passed in August 1935 to provide funds and personnel for devising improved production and marketing methods. In the following year the Indian Arts and Crafts Board was appointed,

with broad powers in fulfilling its function but with no authority to act as a dealer.

General Policies and Plans of Board

After an extensive field study of 6 months, covering production and marketing conditions, the Board in January 1937 outlined its general policies and began its first concrete projects. The present brief account of the activities of this new agency is taken from the annual report of the Secretary of the Interior for the year ending June 30, 1937.

On the production side, it is the policy of the Board to make raw materials available; to promote quality production; to aid in the organization of groups of craftsmen; to furnish craftsmen of tribes having traditional handicaps with all available data on techniques formerly used by these tribes and to inform them of the requirements of the existing market. Those groups with no traditional handicrafts are to be afforded an opportunity to learn industries. In the Board's contacts with local dealers, it encourages emphasis on high-grade work and assists in establishing business relations with a high-grade market.

The plans of the board include stimulating and actually cooperating in the organization of Indian arts and crafts exhibits, encouraging publications on Indian arts and crafts, and setting up an educational service for sales forces of stores handling Indian craft products.

Initiation of Local Projects

The Board has initiated the following specific projects:

Silver project (Navajo, Pueblo, and Hopi Reservations, New Mexico and Arizona).—Standards of genuineness and quality for the silver work of the Navajo, Pueblo, and Hopi Indians have been set up and published. A Government stamp has been devised, which is applicable only to products that come up to such standards.

Arrangements have been made for the loan of expert Navajo teachers of silversmithing from the Division of Education of the Indian Service. These experts advise reservation silversmiths who desire to produce jewelry of the highest type.

Private groups are supplying the workmen with raw materials and adequate wages. Even after visits to all local dealers, no work of a quality equaling the products of the teachers and their students (with the exception of old pieces) has been found to be on sale. The Board believes that this project will not only produce a better source of income for the best silversmiths, but will also create a demand for better jewelry and thus stimulate the production and trade for more profitable merchandise all over this region.

Navajo textile project.—A certificate of genuineness has been devised which is to be applied to Navajo wool textiles woven according to traditional Navajo methods.

Textile home-industry project (eastern Oklahoma).—A special survey has been made by the Board in eastern Oklahoma where the traditional crafts products have little market appeal or are no longer made. As a consequence it is planned to introduce home industries that will offer the workman an opportunity to profit from his skill and at the same time to achieve a style of his own.

The making of homespun yarn is the first home industry to be developed in this region. Market research has disclosed that most of the homespun yarn used in this country is imported from abroad and is very high priced. The Board has requested the Education Division of the Indian Service to loan an expert spinning teacher as instructor, and is hopeful that later it will be able to help in organizing an Indian cooperative or credit association to carry on the work commercially. The Board will also cooperate in developing markets for this yarn. It is expected that this project will later be expanded to include weaving and rug making.

Arts and crafts group project (western Oklahoma).—Recognizing the strength of the old traditional arts and crafts societies in western Oklahoma, the Board has started projects based on group activities. One of the Board's staff members has promoted the formation of fairly large groups of Indians who are interested in the improvement of the quality of their traditional tribal arts. In Anadarko and Shawnee, production has already begun, in cooperation with the local agencies of the Indian Service and organized groups of local business men who have realized that the development of these finer Indian crafts is definitely advantageous to the whole region. Leatherwork and beadwork will be the leading products under these projects.

Experimental laboratory, Tesuque, N. Mex.—In Tesuque last spring a small laboratory was operated to experiment with the methods of production of tanners, weavers, and silversmiths from different reservations. The purpose of these experiments was to aid craftsmen to discover the specific types of raw material most suitable for their work and the best methods of production.

Legal protection of Indian products against unfair and fraudulent advertising methods.—"With the aid of the United States district attorney of the territory involved, the use of misleading labels on one type of imitation Indian jewelry has been stopped; another case of the same kind is in the hands of the attorney now. Two cases of false newspaper advertising have been referred to the Federal Bureau of Investigation for appropriate action."

Indian exhibit at Paris World's Fair.—Arrangement was made for an Indian exhibit at the World's Fair in Paris through the Board's cooperation with the American Federation of Arts.

Plans for Indian exhibit at San Francisco's World's Fair 1939.—Representatives of the Indian Arts and Crafts Board have taken up

with the World's Fair authorities and private groups in San Francisco the matter of an Indian exhibit at the 1939 Golden Gate International Exposition. One of the Board's staff members assisted in outlining an exhibit plan which will show for the first time the whole range of the Indian's artistic ability in a dramatic and dignified manner.

TRAINING PROJECTS FOR UNEMPLOYED YOUTH IN CANADA

AS AN OUTCOME of recommendations made by the Youth Employment Committee of the Canadian National Employment Commission, an item of $1,000,000 was included in the 1937–38 estimates of the Dominion Department of Labor "to provide for development and training projects for unemployed young people." Provision was made for entering into an agreement with each Province under which the Dominion would grant 50 percent of the cost of specific training programs presented by the Province and approved by the Federal Government, the Province to meet all administrative expenses. A résumé of the activities under this Dominion-Provincial program is published in the Canadian Labor Gazette.[1]

Each Province submitted specific proposals based on conditions and requirements in its own domain. Agreements effective until the close of the fiscal year on March 31, 1938, were signed by all of the nine Provinces. Up to the end of the calendar year 1937, about 16,000 young persons had had training under this Dominion-Provincial plan.

The following four major types of projects were specified as coming within the scope of the authorized scheme:

(*a*) Training projects of an occupational nature;
(*b*) Learnership courses in industry;
(*c*) Work projects to combine training with conservation and development of natural resources;
(*d*) Physical-training programs to maintain health and morale.

These projects are open to all persons 18 to 30 years of age who are not gainfully employed and are in necessitous circumstances. The selection of beneficiaries is made by the Provinces subject to the approval of the Dominion, without favor or discrimination as to race, religion, or politics.

The program was given wide publicity so that young persons would know of the available opportunities and also in order to secure the cooperation of the public in carrying out the projects. The plan calls for the use, as far as possible, of existing facilities and the fullest possible cooperation on the part of public and private local organizations. Advisory committees of interested persons, representing

[1] Canadian Labor Gazette (Ottawa), April 1937 (pp. 414–415); June 1937 (p. 596); January 1938 (pp. 28–29).

employers, labor, educational authorities, women's organizations, youth organizations, etc., were set up in numerous localities to aid in carrying on the various projects.

The vocational guidance of young persons previous to occupational training was provided for, and also physical education, recreation, and other group activities whenever possible. Emphasis was given to the importance of placing those who had satisfactorily completed a course of training. Furthermore, special officers were assigned to secure the cooperation of employers in the placement of trainees and to aid industry to train learners and apprentices.

A weekly living allowance is provided for young persons attending instruction courses away from home. In every Province training courses in agricultural subjects are being given through the Provincial departments of agriculture. In Alberta, New Brunswick, and Ontario provision has been made for the placement of over 700 selected young men from cities and towns as farm apprentices with experienced farmers. These young men are to be instructed in the various kinds of farm work, and some class instruction in special courses is in contemplation. Aid is also being extended to selected youthful farmers in Alberta, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, and Saskatchewan, to make it possible for these young men to take winter courses in agriculture at schools and colleges. In the Maritime Provinces and Quebec particular attention is given to instruction and leadership in rural cooperation.

In the summer and autumn of 1937, over 1,300 young men were trained in forestry work on the Crown lands of British Columbia, Manitoba, New Brunswick, and Ontario, under the direction of officials of the Forest Service. In most of the camps class instruction in subjects related to forestry and also organized recreation were provided. Valuable results have been obtained in the conservation and development of forest resources. At the time of the preparation of the report under review, provision was being made for approximately 400 young men on projects for winter training in Alberta, Manitoba, Prince Edward Island, and Quebec. In New Brunswick opportunities for summer training in surveying, prospecting, and hand drilling were also afforded.

About 600 youths took part in the mine-training projects of British Columbia, Nova Scotia, Ontario, and Quebec. In British Columbia, the placer-mining training was given in specially set-up camps, and was followed by supervised prospecting in small groups for several months, with grubstakes furnished by the project. In Ontario the training is of a technical character, and the course of 6 months is given at the Haileybury School of Mining. Nova Scotia and Quebec each offer a practical course in hard-rock mining in a gold mine which the Province operates with a group of skilled miners

and qualified mining men as supervisors. Each week a certain amount of time is allotted to class instruction. Every trainee is given a thorough medical examination and X-rays to ascertain whether or not he will be physically fit for mine work after his training.

In Manitoba, Ontario, and Quebec, plans have been devised to aid in training learners and apprentices in industry. Employers have been canvassed, and "whenever they agree to take on young people and train them in specific trades or occupations, they are relieved of the cost of instruction, either through the provision of special classes, or, in those occupations where class instruction is unnecessary, through the payment of a weekly sum to the industry to meet the cost of instruction on the job." This amount varies, and also the length of the period for which it is paid, according to the character of the occupation. No subsidy is paid, however, to productive wages, and safeguards are set up against overcrowding in the trades or the displacing of older employees.

With the exception of Nova Scotia, all the Provinces have schemes for providing occupational training for city youth, either in technical schools or in other centers, to equip them for employment when it becomes available.

A variety of opportunities was provided specially for young women. Schools for training household workers have been established in some two dozen cities of the nine Provinces. A 3-months intensive course will be given, with a placement and follow-up service provided. In many of these schools the girls will live in residence. Training will also be given in other specialized forms of work for women. In the rural districts of all the Provinces courses of instruction will be given in home economics, appropriate farm subjects, health, handicrafts, etc.

In British Columbia and Quebec definite projects have been undertaken to provide physical education, recreation, and group activities for young people, both men and women. The British Columbia scheme is Province-wide and directed by the department of education. The Quebec project is to be confined to the cities, and various private organizations are to cooperate in carrying out the activities contemplated.

The administration of the youth-training program is entrusted to the following Provincial agencies: In Alberta, New Brunswick, and Saskatchewan, to the department of education; in British Columbia, Manitoba, Nova Scotia, and Ontario, to the department of labor; in Quebec, to the department of trade and commerce; and in Prince Edward Island, to the department of agriculture.

Older Workers in Industry

MEN OVER 40 IN EXECUTIVE POSITIONS

THE value of men over 40 years of age in executive and higher-type selling positions in wholesale and retail distribution and allied lines was recently made the subject of a survey by the research committee of the Sales Executives Club of New York City, and a questionnaire was sent to several hundred members of the club.[1] "For total value to the organization," 80 percent of the members replying to the inquiry prefer men over 40, 86 percent of those who are themselves over 40 and 64 percent of those under 40 expressing a preference for men over that age.

According to the replies to the survey, 94 percent of the reporting members of the club consider the man over 40 "more likely to be conscientious about those phases of his work which are hard to check up"; 88 percent hold that among men with the same length of service in an organization, the man over 40 is less likely to resign to take up other work; and 81 percent are of the opinion that men over the age in question are more inclined to have an open-minded attitude toward criticism.

The following statement analyzes the replies received. The proportion which regarded men over 40 as superior in each of the listed qualifications is shown, and also the relative importance of each factor in the total value of a man over 40 as an executive or expert salesman in wholesale and retail distribution. In other words, the figures in the first column show where such men are strong and where they are weak, and those in the second column show where they should be strong.

[1] Age of Personnel in Relation to its Value in the Field of Wholesale and Retail Distribution, New York, Polygraphic Co. of America, Inc., [1937?]; and Hardware Age, New York, Oct. 21, 1937, p. 140.

Qualifications for work	*Percent preferring men over 40*	*Relative rank in total importance*
More likely to be conscientious about those phases of his work which are hard to check up	94	2
Less likely to resign to go elsewhere (after having had the same length of service in the organization)	88	6
More likely to take an open-minded attitude toward criticism	81	3
Less likely to want to try different methods merely for the sake of being different	80	12
Less likely to become discouraged by failure to accomplish the result expected	77	7
Likely to undertake an unpleasant assignment more willingly	75	4
Less likely to "yes" his superiors when it is not necessary to do so	74	10
Less likely to have to be discharged (where the length of service is equal)	73	17
Likely to turn out more production	73	1
More likely to be cooperative generally	71	9
Less likely to become discouraged and upset by severe criticism	71	11
Less likely to become unduly argumentative when he cannot have his own way	70	15
More likely to do necessary overtime work cheerfully	69	8
More likely to undertake a difficult assignment without an unhealthy fear of criticism for failure	68	13
More likely to bring into the organization new ideas of value	67	5
Less likely to persist in methods disapproved by the organization	67	14
Less likely to have family complications adversely affecting efficiency on the job	65	19
Likely to finish an assignment in less time	51	18
More likely to accept wholeheartedly the fixed policies of the organization	50	21
More anxious to learn and understand the policies of the organization	47	20
Less likely to lose time on the job for sickness or other reasons	46	22
Likely to have more of the type of iniative that results in improvement	45	16
More likely to get into a new type of assignment (problem) promptly	36	23
More likely to be careful of personal appearance	29	26
More likely to adapt himself promptly to the policies of the organization	29	25
More likely to have the type of enthusiasm and cheerfulness which is valuable to the organization	28	24

MAXIMUM HIRING AGES IN CANADIAN INDUSTRY

OF 7,725 firms included in a survey by the National Employment Commission of Canada, 928 or 12.0 percent reported as of January 1937 that they had prescribed maximum hiring ages, 83.3 percent stated that they had no maximum age at which employees were taken on, and 4.7 did not report on this point. In September 1936 these 928 firms employed 302,379 persons, or 29.4 percent of the 1,028,750 employees of 7,725 firms. The following table shows the prescribed maximum hiring ages in January 1937, by number of persons employed in the reporting establishments: [1]

[1] Canada. National Employment Commission. Report on Phases of Employment Conditions in Canadian Industry, p. 42. Ottawa, 1937,

Number of Employees [1] in Firms Reporting Maximum Hiring Ages as of January 1937

Industry	Total number of firms	Total number of employees [1]	Number of employees in firms with maximum hiring ages—						
			20–29 years	30–39 years	40–49 years	50–59 years	60–69 years	70 years and over	Not specified
All industries	928	302,379	6,148	20,456	221,752	29,862	9,724	172	14,265
Primary industries	49	16,731	22	1,248	11,071	2,737	737	4	912
Logging	20	3,497	------	67	1,215	1,171	215	4	825
Mining	29	13,234	22	1,181	9,856	1,566	522	-----	87
Coal	5	593	------	------	143	194	243	------	13
Metallic ores	17	10,666	------	1,163	8,867	283	279	------	74
Nonmetallic other than coal	7	1,975	22	18	846	1,089	------	------	------
Secondary industries	879	285,648	6,126	19,208	210,681	27,125	8,987	168	13,353
Communication	19	24,653	------	561	21,142	2,885	------	------	65
Telegraph	5	5,175	------	------	2,225	2,885	------	------	65
Telephone	14	19,478	------	561	18,917	------	------	------	------
Wireless and radio	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Construction	54	46,914	946	87	36,156	7,053	1,448	20	1,204
Highway	21	8,245	30	87	196	5,995	1,043	------	894
Railway	5	37,467	916	------	35,960	591	------	------	------
Other	28	1,202	------	------	------	467	405	20	310
Manufacturing	503	96,478	1,701	8,445	57,776	13,223	7,014	148	8,171
Animal products n. e. s.	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Chemical manufacturing n. e. s.	25	2,347	------	173	966	1,023	------	------	185
Clay, glass and stone products	14	972	------	98	523	240	49	------	62
Edible animal products	29	4,145	------	483	3,059	22	50	------	531
Edible plant products	49	8,740	416	596	3,645	676	2,331	------	1,076
Electrical apparatus manufacturing	11	3,372	7	21	2,972	151	------	------	221
Electric current manufacturing	20	6,498	------	------	6,339	100	22	------	37
Fur and fur products	1	35	------	------	------	------	35	------	------
Iron and steel products	73	23,378	136	98	18,635	2,577	938	7	987
Leather and its products	16	1,679	521	------	151	473	------	------	534
Lumber and its products	58	4,497	21	67	1,369	1,006	1,452	141	441
Mineral products n. e. s.	12	2,686	4	23	2,376	24	259	------	------
Musical instrument manufacturing	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Nonferrous metal products	23	9,363	------	4,424	4,108	397	272	------	162
Plant products n. e. s.	13	1,389	72	443	624	77	32	------	141
Pulp and paper products and printing	54	8,723	93	1,090	1,632	4,003	1,081	------	824
Rubber products	8	3,102	------	------	2,899	14	189	------	------
Textile products	92	14,892	431	929	7,960	2,315	304	------	2,953
Wood distillates and extracts	1	455	------	------	455	------	------	------	------
Miscellaneous manufacturing	4	205	------	------	63	125	------	------	17
Service	65	12,323	1,496	2,978	5,364	345	78	------	2,062
Governmental, n. e. s.	23	7,355	1,255	2,814	2,246	------	29	------	1,011
Hotel and restaurant	18	3,435	119	------	2,625	145	21	------	525
Professional and institutional	5	670	122	52	202	------	------	------	294
Recreational	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Other	19	863	------	112	291	200	28	------	232
Trade	129	14,260	895	5,698	5,926	898	142	------	701
Retail	57	11,404	610	5,383	4,586	319	142	------	364
Wholesale	72	2,856	285	315	1,340	579	------	------	337
Transportation and storage	109	91,020	1,088	1,439	84,317	2,721	305	------	1,150
Forwarding and storage	49	7,918	28	1,006	4,302	1,761	54	------	767
Rail transportation (electric)	10	7,520	------	------	7,407	113	------	------	------
Rail transportation (steam)	33	70,536	1,060	278	68,049	766	------	------	383
Water transportation	17	5,046	------	155	4,559	81	251	------	------

[1] September 1936.

Industrial Hygiene

NATIONAL HEALTH SURVEY, 1935–36

SIX MILLION persons are unable to work, attend school, or pursue other usual activities each day during the winter months, on account of illness, injury, or gross physical impairment resulting from disease or accident, according to an estimate by the United States Public Health Service based on a national health survey.[1] A house-to-house canvass was made during the fall and winter of 1935–36 by the Public Health Service with the aid of grants from the Works Progress Administration. The study covered 740,000 families in urban communities in 19 States and 36,000 families in selected rural areas in 3 States, comprising a total of 2,800,000 persons. Earlier studies by the Public Health Service and the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care provided the background and the techniques used in the present study, although the former studies were limited in both area and family coverage as compared with the present study. It is stated in the report that a very wide coverage is essential if, for a country the size of the United States, analysis is to be made of the health effects of the many differences in climate, racial composition, urbanization, industrial activities, and economic status. It is also necessary to canvass a very large population in studying the occurrence and causes of the less frequent diseases, in order to obtain reports on enough cases in various regions and population groups to permit statistical analysis.

There is still a great deal of preventable illness in spite of the advances in disease control in the past half century, and current data on the effects of environmental and social economic factors are much needed. Moreover, the increasing proportion of older persons in the population makes the problem of chronic diseases of growing importance, since there is a lack of data on the number of persons suffering from such conditions and their age and sex distribution. There is also need for information as to the cause and frequency of accidents and the extent of the resulting disability. A plan for

[1] United States Public Health Service. National Institute of Health. The National Health Survey, 1935–36. Preliminary Reports: Significance, scope, and method of a Nation-wide family canvass of sickness in relation to its social and economic setting; Families distributed by income during the survey year; An estimate of the amount of disabling illness in the country as a whole; Illness and medical care in relation to economic status. Washington, 1938.

the provision of modern medical services for all sections of the population depends upon knowledge of the extent of the need for each kind of service. Such data are generally not available from regular official records and there is only incomplete coverage in the statistics furnished by insurance companies, workmen's compensation boards, etc., or the records of doctors, hospitals, and health agencies. The true picture of care received in relation to needs, therefore, can be obtained only through family reporting.

The major objectives of the Health Survey were to determine: (1) The incidence and nature of serious disabling illnesses (those lasting 7 consecutive days or longer) during a 12-month period among a nationally representative population; (2) the duration of such illnesses; (3) medical care received; (4) the number and type of serious accidents and impairments resulting from accidents; (5) the prevalence and type of chronic conditions, orthopedic defects, blindness and deafness; (6) the prevalence and kind of disabling illness on the day of the visit; (7) the utilization of certain medical and public-health facilities such as health clinics, tuberculosis sanatoria, and public-health nursing services; (8) the relation between disease and social, economic, and other conditions, such as income, employment status, occupation, housing conditions, education, age, sex, and color; (9) mortality in relation to income and other social and economic circumstances.

In order to make the survey nationally representative, 84 cities distributed in 19 States were chosen, which were regarded as typical of the four main geographic regions—East, four States; Central, five States; South, six States; and West, four States. The cities chosen represented four different size groups: 500,000 population or more; 100,000 to 500,000; 25,000 to 100,000; and less than 25,000; but in order to avoid overrepresentation of large city populations, 31 cities of more than 100,000 population and one smaller city (Montgomery, Ala.) were only sampled, while 53 smaller cities were completely canvassed. The samples taken in the larger cities ranged from 5,000 to 45,000 schedules, on the basis of the number considered adequate to represent the individual community as well as to complete the sample on the basis of regional and size distribution. Of the 23 rural sections studied, 16 were in Georgia, 4 in Michigan, and 3 in Missouri. These localities were, of course, not entirely representative of the rural population as a whole. The procedure followed in the sampling in the larger cities was designed to secure, as far as possible, adequate representation of the different population groups.

As the accuracy of the information gathered in a survey of this kind depends largely upon the quality of the enumeration procedures, extreme care was taken in establishing the field organization and training and canvassing methods. Five administrative regions under a supervisor were set up for the 19 States. A supervisor was appointed

to handle administrative details in each State, thus leaving the regional and local supervisors free to train and supervise the field workers.

The thorough training given the enumerators, the publicity through the press, radio, schools, and churches, and the interest and assistance of State and local health officers and the medical societies resulted in such general cooperation that 98.5 percent of the families asked to give information complied with the request. As a check on the information regarding cases of illness given by the families interviewed, the name of the hospital or doctor who cared for an attended case was secured. In these cases questionnaires were sent to the doctors or institutions, and professional reports were secured on 350,000 of the attended illnesses, or about 66 percent of the cases on which reports were requested. Copies of nearly 14,000 death certificates were also secured.

The enumeration was carried out between the early part of October 1935 and March 30, 1936, and each family reported illnesses experienced during the 12 months preceding the day of interview, family income during the same period, and any relief assistance received during the year. The sickness and income information in the survey as a whole, therefore, covers a period of 18 months, in which, while the worst depths of the depression had passed, widespread unemployment and want still prevailed. Families were classified as being of the relief group if any assistance had been received from an official agency within the 12 months. The net family income for others than the relief group was estimated roughly for the preceding 12 months within the income classes $5,000 or more, $3,000 to $5,000, $2,000 to $3,000, $1,000 to $2,000, and $1,000 and under. Persons included in the term "workers" were regularly employed persons, unemployed persons engaged on work relief, and totally unemployed persons seeking work. Included in the latter category were persons who were looking for their first job.

Certain definitions were adopted for the classification of the sickness and impairment data. An illness was considered as a continuous period of sickness, whether due to one or more causes, and a disabling illness one which kept a person from his work, school, or usual activities. No terminated disabling illnesses of less than 7 days' duration were included in the survey, with the exception of confinements, hospital cases, and fatal cases, which were included regardless of their duration. A record was taken, however, of all disabling cases on the day of the enumeration visit. Disabling illnesses were classified by cause according to the nature of the specific diagnosis, and the duration of symptoms of the disease. For the purpose of a broad grouping, illnesses of less than 3 months' duration were classified as "acute" and those with symptoms of 3 months or more as "chronic." Per-

manent handicaps resulting from disease, accident, or congenital defect, including impaired or lost members or serious defects of vision or hearing, were classified as impairments. Both disabling and nondisabling impairments were included. Physicians' care covered attention received from a doctor of medicine or similar practitioner in addition to that given by physicians in hospitals.

The distribution of the persons covered in the study was on the basis of the household, the family income, and the relief status of the family group. One family made up each household, consisting of a group of persons or a single person, with one person designated as the head. Family income included salaries, wages, business profits, income from boarders and lodgers, and income from investments. Families were considered to have received relief if, at any time during the year, one or more of the members had been on work relief other than the P. W. A. or C. C. C., or had received direct relief, mothers' pension, pension for the blind, or any similar grant from public funds administered by a Federal, State, or local government. The amount, of the income of families which reported the receipt of relief was not asked by the enumerators.

Extent of Disabling Illness

The estimate of 6,000,000 persons incapacitated in a single day was made on the basis of the sickness records of 2,300,000 persons surveyed in 81 of the cities canvassed, in which 4.5 percent of the number were sick on the day of the canvass. The proportion of those sick on an average winter day was found to vary widely with age. The highest proportion of sickness occurred among persons 65 years of age and over, as about 1 in every 8 was disabled on the day of the survey. Among young persons aged 15 to 24 the proportion was only 1 in 40. In childhood and in the working ages between 25 and 65 years the ratio was about 1 in 23. The variations in the incidence of sickness according to age are based on an analysis of the cases occurring in a group of 280,073 persons in 8 large cities as applied to the total surveyed group in 81 cities.

Approximately a million and a half of the 6 million persons disabled on the day of the canvass were suffering from acute respiratory diseases—influenza, colds, tonsillitis, etc.—this high proportion being due to the fact that the survey was made in the winter months when these diseases are most prevalent. About 2½ million persons were disabled by chronic diseases (rheumatism, diseases of the heart and circulatory system, arteriosclerosis, nephritis, cancer, and nonmalignant tumors, diabetes, asthma, tuberculosis, ulcer of the stomach, diseases of the gall bladder, nervous diseases), and permanent impairments resulting from earlier disease or accident. Accidents were

the cause of disability in about 500,000 persons, and the acute infectious diseases were responsible for the illness of about 250,000 persons, mostly children. Acute diseases of the stomach and liver, and appendicitis, also caused about 250,000 cases of disability. The remaining 1 million cases were caused by various other acute diseases.

The average frequency and severity of illnesses computed for the surveyed groups are based on illnesses occurring in a 12-month period and lasting more than 7 days. Among the persons surveyed these illnesses averaged about 172 per 1,000 persons canvassed. If this average is applied to the entire population of the United States, there were about 22 million illnesses disabling for a week or longer, or about 16 such illnesses for each death occurring in 1935, the approximate survey year. This figure is regarded as a minimum since it does not include the illnesses of short duration.

Table 1 shows the frequency and severity of illness by age of 2,308,588 persons in 81 cities canvassed in the National Health Survey, 1935–36.

TABLE 1.—*Frequency and Severity of Illness, by Age, of Persons Canvassed in National Health Survey, 1935–36*

Age group	Disabling illnesses per 1,000 persons	Average days of disability per case [1]	Average days of disability per person per year [2]
All ages	172	57	9.8
Under 15 years	232	26	6.0
15 to 64 years	144	63	9.1
65 years and over	265	123	32.6

[1] Average for a surveyed group of 280,073 persons in 8 large cities.
[2] Estimated on basis of severity of illness in surveyed group of 280,073 persons in 8 large cities—Atlanta, Ga.; Cincinnati, Ohio; Dallas, Tex.; Fall River, Mass.; Newark, N. J.; Oakland, Calif.; St. Paul, Minn.; Seattle, Wash.

An average of 57 days of disability for cases of illness lasting 1 week or longer observed among the group of 280,073 persons in 8 large cities, applied to the total illness rate of 22 million cases, shows that nearly 1¼ billion days are lost annually from home and industrial work or from school in the country as a whole.

There is great variation in the severity of diseases, and in contrast to the average of 57 days of disability per case for all types of cases, an average of 138 days per case was shown for disabling illness due to chronic disease. Chronic diseases occurred with about the same frequency as acute respiratory diseases, but the duration of the average chronic case was found to be over seven times as long as the average case of respiratory disease.

Table 2 shows the frequency and severity of illness classified by cause in broad diagnosis groups.

TABLE 2.—*Frequency and Severity of Illness, by Cause*

Diagnosis group	Disabling illnesses per 1,000 persons	Average days of disability per case [1]	Average days of disability per person per year [2]
All causes	172	57	9.8
Infections	29	24	.7
Respiratory (chiefly acute)	47	19	.9
Digestive (chiefly acute)	9	49	.4
Puerperal state	15	34	.5
Accidents	16	46	.7
Chronic diseases [3]	46	138	.3
All other causes	10	78	.8

[1] Average for a surveyed group of 280,073 persons in 8 large cities.
[2] Estimated on basis of cases of disability in 8 large cities.
[3] Included in broad group of illnesses due to chronic disease were gross permanent impairments, for which the rate was 3 per 1,000 persons.

The number of cases of orthopedic conditions and gross permanent impairments, both disabling and nondisabling, was considered to be of particular interest because of the lack of such information for the general population. The data covering 2,308,588 persons in 81 cities showed that 2 percent had lost various members or had permanently impaired members. The average number of cases of orthopedic conditions was 19.6 per 1,000 persons, the average for lost members (feet or legs, hands or arms, fingers, toes) being 7.4 per 1,000 and for impaired members, including the spine, 12.2 per 1,000. The average number of cases of blindness in one eye was 3.4, partial blindness 2.0, and total blindness 0.9 per 1,000. Deafness, either partial or total and including the deaf and dumb, had an average of 13.0 cases per 1,000.

Illness and Medical Care in Relation to Economic Status

Classification of the urban population of approximately 2¼ million persons by income status shows that persons in families with annual incomes under $1,000 formed about 40 percent of the group canvassed; 65 percent were in families with annual incomes under $1,500; and 80 percent were in families with incomes under $2,000. Almost one-half of the lowest income group had received relief during 1935. Thus, two of every five persons surveyed were in the lowest income group, the same proportion were in the group with incomes of $1,000 to $2,000, and only one in five were in families with an income in excess of $2,000.

For those in the lowest income group, the report states, it is evident that inadequate diet, poor housing, occupational hazards, and the instability of the labor market create serious health problems. Earlier surveys have shown that the frequency of illness is highest among the poor—a finding confirmed by preliminary data from the present study. Disabling illness lasting 1 week or longer in a 12-month period

occurred among families on relief at a rate 57 percent higher than in families with annual incomes of $3,000 and over. For acute and chronic illnesses the rates were 47 percent and 87 percent, respectively. During the year, two persons on relief were disabled for 1 week or longer by chronic illness for every disabled person in the middle and highest income groups.

Persons in families just above the relief level—that is with incomes under $1,000—experienced an illness rate lower than the relief population but 17 percent higher than the rate for the highest income class. This is shown in table 3, which gives the annual frequency of illnesses disabling for 1 week or longer for the different family income groups among 2,308,588 persons in 8 cities in 1935–36:

TABLE 3.—*Annual Frequency of Illness Disabling for 1 Week or Longer as Related to Annual Family Income, 1935–36*

Annual family income and relief status	Disabling illnesses per 1,000 persons—12-month period			Ratio to rate among families with incomes of $3,000 and over		
	All illnesses	Acute	Chronic	All illnesses	Acute	Chronic
All incomes	172	124	48			
Relief families	234	163	71	157	147	187
Nonrelief families:						
Under $1,000	174	119	54	117	107	142
$1,000 to $2,000	155	117	38	104	105	100
$2,000 to $3,000	150	113	37	101	102	98
$3,000 and over	149	111	38	100	100	100

TABLE 4.—*Frequency and Severity of Acute and Chronic Illness*[1] *as Related to Annual Family Income, 1935–36*

Annual family income and relief status	Disabling illnesses per 1,000 persons		Days of disability per case[2]		Annual days of disability per person[3]	
	Acute	Chronic	Acute	Chronic	Acute	Chronic
All incomes	124	48	26	138	3.2	6.6
Relief	163	71	27	168	4.4	11.9
Nonrelief:						
Under $1,000	119	54	26	159	3.1	8.6
$1,000 to $2,000	117	38	24	127	2.8	4.8
$2,000 to $3,000	113	37	25	116	2.8	4.3
$3,000 and over	111	38	25	103	2.7	3.9

[1] Disabling for 1 week or longer in a 12-month period.
[2] Average number of cases in a surveyed group of 280,073 persons in 8 large cities.
[3] Estimated on basis of disability in group of 280,073 persons.

The frequency of illness—that is, the number of cases occurring during the year—and the severity of illness, or the duration of the average case, are the two factors determining the annual volume of illness. It was shown in the study that not only do relief and low-income families experience more frequent illness during a year than the higher income groups, but their illnesses are, on the average, of

longer duration. As shown in table 4, covering 2,308,588 persons in 81 cities, the average case of disabling chronic illness among persons in relief families was 63 percent longer in duration than the average case in the group of incomes of $3,000 and over. Combined with the higher frequency of chronic illness in the relief group, the volume of disability in this group is three times as great as in the upper-income families—11.9 days as compared with 3.9 days per person.

In addition to the larger number of cases of disability in the families of the lower income and relief groups, these groups also received less medical care, 83 percent of the cases in the highest income class being attended by a physician as compared with 70 percent among the relief families. Of the attended cases fewer physician's calls per case were also received by the low-income or relief families, although a higher proportion of these families received care from a visiting nurse. However, this service, it is stated in the report, does not compensate for continuous bedside nursing care which is needed in certain severe types of illness. In contrast to the lower rates for care by physicians and private-duty nurses, the surveyed relief population received hospitalization at an annual rate of 63 cases per 1,000 persons, as compared with a rate of 45 per 1,000 persons in the highest-income group. When the hospital cases were related to the number of disabling illnesses, however, the relief group were found to receive hospital care in a somewhat lower proportion. The lowest hospitalization rate—24 percent of all disabling illnesses—was found in the group of nonrelief families with incomes under $1,000.

According to a preliminary analysis of the data on hospital care, it appeared that the relatively large volume of hospital care received by relief and low-income families prevailed only in the cities of 100,000 population and over, and that the provision of this care decreased with the decrease in the size of the cities, reflecting the greater inadequacy of free hospital facilities in the smaller communities.

HEALTH OF INSURED WAGE EARNERS IN 1937

THE BEST health record in the experience of the company was attained among the 17,700,000 industrial policy holders of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. in 1937.[1] This large group is made up almost entirely of wage earners and their dependents. The new low mortality rate for all causes of death combined was 8.221 deaths per 1,000 insured lives, a reduction of 2.1 percent from the figure for 1936. Best records were registered for eight causes of death—typhoid fever, scarlet fever, tuberculosis, chronic nephritis, puerperal diseases,

[1] Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. Statistical Bulletin, January 1938: Nineteen Thirty-seven a Star Health Year.

homicides, accidental burns, and railroad accidents—while the combined rate for all forms of accidental death was lower than ever before. In 7 of the 12 months of last year (May to September, inclusive, November, and December), the lowest death rate of all time for each of these individual months was recorded, while September had the lowest death rate for any month in any year covered by the company's records. The average length of life, or expectation of life at birth among the policyholders, reached a new maximum in 1937 of 60.7 years, an increase of a third of a year over the 1936 figure, and of approximately 14 years over the expectation of life (46.63 years) a quarter of a century ago.

The crude death rate among weekly premium-paying policyholders aged 1 year and over was 35.8 percent below that for 1911, the first year of the Metropolitan's series of comparable mortality records. If the same mortality had prevailed in 1937, there would have been 237,693 deaths in this group instead of the 139,816 which actually occurred. Although the death rate in the general population has also declined during this period, the decline has been more marked among the industrial wage earners. This reduction in mortality is ascribed in considerable part to the welfare activities of the life-insurance company. Analysis of the mortality record by age groups shows that the decline has been particularly evident among children, adolescents, and young adults, but has obtained in all age groups up to 65. Beyond that age there was a slight rise above the mortality rate for 1936. The improvement over conditions a quarter of a century ago is shown by the fact that for early childhood the 1937 death rate was less than one-quarter of that recorded in 1911, and for every age group up to 45 the mortality has been reduced to one-half of the earlier figure or less.

The downward trend in mortality from tuberculosis which has prevailed among the insured group for a long period was continued in 1937. Figures for 1937 regarding the rate from this disease in the general population are not yet available, but provisional figures for 1936 indicate that there was perhaps a slight increase in that year over the 1935 rate. During the last quarter century the decline in the death rate from this cause has been greater among the insured group than in the general population, and this holds true for both males and females and for Negroes as well as for white persons. This means, it is pointed out in the report, that the section of the population where the tuberculosis problem was formerly most serious has benefited most from the efforts to eradicate the disease. Further, it is said, the cumulative effects of unemployment and poverty during the depression years have not had the unfavorable effect on the tuberculosis death rate which might have been expected. Tuberculosis as a cause of death ranks seventh, however, in the principal causes of death, and is still an extremely important public-health problem.

Typhoid fever in 1937 showed a reduction of 96 percent in the mortality rate over the quarter-century period. In spite of the generally favorable showing for this disease, however, there are still States and localities which have high rates.

The combined death rate for the four principal communicable diseases of childhood—measles, scarlet fever, whooping cough, and diphtheria—rose from a rate of 6.5 per 100,000 in 1936 to 7.5 in 1937. This increase was due principally to a sharp increase in the rate for whooping cough, which rose from 1.7 deaths per 100,000 in 1936 to 3.0 deaths per 100,000 in 1937. Measles and diphtheria, which had registered new low rates in 1936, also rose slightly. However, compared with the figures for 1927 there had been a reduction of 69 percent in the combined rates for the four diseases. Of these diseases the greatest interest attaches to diphtheria where the largest reduction in mortality has occurred. In spite of the slight rise in 1937, the rate for this disease has been cut in two in 5 years, reduced by more than 80 percent in 10 years, and by 93 percent since 1911.

Influenza and pneumonia had a combined mortality approximately the same as in 1936, but the death rate for pneumonia alone showed an improvement over the previous year. There was a widespread prevalence of influenza in the first part of 1937, accompanied by sharp increases in mortality both for this disease and for pneumonia. In many thousands of pneumonia cases, however, influenza is not a factor, and the reduction of the mortality rate from this disease is considered significant in view of the new serum treatment, which it is estimated could reduce the mortality from this disease throughout the country by at least one-half if it were used in all cases of lobar pneumonia.

There has been a continued reduction in the death rate from puerperal diseases among insured women over a long period. The rate had fallen from 15.5 per 100,000 in 1927 to a new minimum of 6.8 in 1937—a decline of 56 percent. This reduction is affected to a considerable extent by the falling birth rate with the consequent reduced exposure to these risks, but the fall in the puerperal death rate has been much greater than that in the birth rate and reflects the effects of the intensive drive against the avoidable risks of the puerperal state.

The systematic downward trend in the mortality rate from chronic nephritis continued in 1937, when a new low mortality rate of 54.6 per 100,000 was registered. The crude rate for heart disease, which holds first place among all the causes of death, dropped slightly in 1937. The improvement occurred among young persons, where most of the deaths are caused by chronic endocarditis, which is induced mainly by infectious diseases. The upward trend among older persons continued. The crude death rate for cancer, second in impor-

tance as a cause of death, was very slightly above the 1936 rate, in which year the first decline in many years was recorded. The rise in the cancer rate from 68.0 in 1911 to 94.1 per 100,000 in 1937 is not a measure, however, of the actual rise in cancer mortality, since shifts in the age distribution of the policyholders and the continual improvement in the diagnosis of internal cancers may account for a very large part, if not the whole, of the increase in the death rate.

The death rate for diabetes continued to rise to a new maximum of 25.0 per 100,000 in 1937. However, the death rate is declining among persons under 45 years of age, and in the older ages, where the mortality is greatest, the rise in the mortality rate is now very slight. The use of the new protamine insulin, which as been definitely proved of value in the past year, is said to hold hopes of improved longevity among diabetics.

Deaths from alcoholism among the industrial policyholders declined from 2.2 per 100,000 in 1936 to 1.8 in 1937—the lowest rate for this disease in 16 years. The total number of deaths was only 323 out of the total of 17,700,000 persons.

Suicides and homicides have both declined in number. The rate for death from suicide was 8.8 per 100,000 as compared with 10.6 in 1932—the highest rate in a 20-year period. The homicide death rate, which was 5.0 per 100,000 in 1936, declined to the new all-time minimum of 4.7 in 1937. The lowest death rate from all kinds of accidents in any year was also recorded, the rate being 53.6 per 100,000 as compared with 57.7 in 1936. This favorable showing was made in spite of increased employment with resultant increased exposure to industrial hazards, as compared with the worst years of the depression. In contrast with the generally lowered accident rate, that for automobile accidents increased from 20.1 deaths per 100,000 in 1936 to 20.9 in 1937, an increase of 4 percent. It appears that, if the estimate of 40,000 automobile fatalities in the United States in 1937 is confirmed later by official figures, last year will register a higher death rate from this cause than has ever before been recorded.

Industrial Accidents

INJURY EXPERIENCE IN 30 MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, 1935 AND 1936 [1]

DISABLING industrial injuries in 30 manufacturing industries decreased in both frequency and severity in 1936 from the 1935 levels, as shown by reports to the Bureau of Labor Statistics covering 7,169 identical establishments in 30 manufacturing industries.[2] The frequency rate for the industries as a group declined from 17.94 in 1935 to 17.07 in 1936, and the accompanying severity rate from 2.32 to 2.05.[3]

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Injury Experience for Identical Establishments in 30 Manufacturing Industries, 1935 and 1936*

Item	1935	1936	Percentage change
Total man-hours of exposure (thousands)	3,933,838	5,001,923	+27.2
Total number of disabling injuries	70,559	85,387	+21.0
Total days of disability	9,113,629	10,230,233	+12.3
Injury frequency rate [1]	17.94	17.07	−4.8
Injury severity rate [1]	2.32	2.05	−11.6

[1] Computed from combined unweighted data for identical establishments.

For all industries covered in the survey in 1936 the number of man-hours worked increased by 1,068 million, or 27.2 percent over 1935, the number of disabling injuries increased 14,828, or 21.0 percent, and the number of days lost increased 1,117,000, or 12.3 percent. The frequency rate decreased 4.8 percent and the severity rate 11.6. These decreases are significant because, although a greater number of injuries occurred and a greater number of days were lost than in 1935, actually fewer workers were injured and fewer days were lost in proportion to the man-hours worked. Further expressed in terms of disabilities per 1,000 injuries, the number of fatalities and permanent disabilities decreased from 81 to 74. In other words, there were 7

[1] This article was prepared by Roy F. Fleming and Jacob Lotven, Bureau of Labor Statistics, under the direction of Swen Kjaer.

[2] The policy of restricting statistics to data furnished by identical establishments for 2 successive years, although tending to narrow the sample, results in a compensating gain of stricter comparability. Shifts in the sample for each 2 successive years give somewhat different rates for any 1 year, depending on whether the comparison is with a preceding year or a succeeding year. To illustrate, the 1935 frequency rate was 18.03 in the 1934–35 comparison and 17.94 in the 1935–36 comparison.

[3] The injury frequency rate is the average number of disabling injuries for each million man-hours worked. The injury severity rate is the average number of days lost for each thousand man-hours worked. The term "injury" connotes a disability which involves loss of time beyond the day or shift on which the injury occurred, or a permanent impairment of some member of the body, even if not accompanied by lost time. The standard time-loss ratings for fatalities and permanent disabilities are given in "Method of compiling industrial injury rates," approved by the American Standards Association, 1937.

fewer deaths and permanent disabilities for every 1,000 injuries in 1936 than in 1935. This shift toward less severe injuries is further reflected in the average time lost per disability. For the permanent partial disabilities the average days lost decreased from 923 days per injury to 902, and for temporary total disabilities, from 19 to 18.

Total Injury Experience

The detailed injury data and the resulting injury rates for each of the 30 manufacturing industries are given in table 2. The data in this table include, for a number of States, estimates of disabling injuries which did not outlast the waiting periods specified by the workmen's compensation acts, and consequently were not reportable to the State agencies administering such acts.[4]

TABLE 2.—*Injuries and Injury Rates for 7,169 Identical Establishments in 30 Manufacturing Industries by Extent of Disability, 1935 and 1936*

Industry	1935									
			Number of injuries							
			Resulting in—							
	Establishments	Man-hours worked (thousands)	Death	Permanent total disability	Permanent partial disability	Temporary total disability	Total	Total time lost (days)	Frequency rate[1]	Severity rate[1]
All industries	7,169	3,933,838	476	35	5,193	64,855	70,559	9,113,629	17.94	2.32
Agricultural implements	84	68,247	4	1	189	1,866	2,060	215,328	30.18	3.16
Automobiles	136	603,723	40	0	660	6,054	6,754	861,967	11.19	1.43
Automobile tires and rubber goods	42	104,075	8	0	73	1,687	1,768	147,766	16.99	1.42
Boots and shoes	219	170,609	2	1	95	1,600	1,698	122,375	9.95	.72
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	358	31,278	10	1	29	1,086	1,126	104,530	36.00	3.34
Carpets and rugs	21	21,870	1	0	33	244	278	38,961	12.71	1.78
Chemicals	181	96,541	29	1	127	1,198	1,355	355,781	14.04	3.69
Cotton goods	293	316,606	14	1	231	3,943	4,189	392,045	13.23	1.24
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	238	285,936	22	1	351	2,392	2,766	457,299	9.67	1.60
Fertilizers	136	11,040	7	0	24	429	460	79,834	41.67	7.23
Flour, feed, and other grain-mill products	314	33,342	8	2	52	779	841	154,624	25.22	4.64
Foundry and machine-shop products	741	202,553	25	4	439	5,295	5,763	668,051	28.45	3.30
Furniture	371	99,196	12	2	244	1,757	2,015	308,411	20.31	3.11
Glass	139	102,311	13	0	81	2,137	2,231	182,546	21.81	1.78
Hardware	77	21,539	0	0	52	445	497	31,330	23.07	1.45
Iron and steel	[2] 1,756	780,349	119	3	824	10,676	11,622	1,678,295	14.89	2.15
Leather	141	61,238	6	0	85	1,292	1,383	141,486	22.58	2.31
Logging	61	15,392	21	1	62	1,102	1,186	252,551	77.05	16.41
Lumber:										
Planing mills	259	30,197	6	1	79	1,037	1,123	143,581	37.19	4.75
Sawmills	260	61,241	22	6	261	3,560	3,849	604,612	62.85	9.87

[1] Computed from combined unweighted data for identical establishments.
The injury frequency rate is the average number of disabling injuries for each million man-hours worked. The injury severity rate is the average number of days lost for each thousand man-hours worked. The standard time-loss ratings for fatalities and permanent disabilities are given in Method of Compiling Industrial Injury Rates, approved by the American Standards Association, 1937.
[2] Departments.

[4] These States with the respective durations of temporary disabilities which are not reportable are: Wisconsin, 3 days; Illinois, Michigan, New Jersey, and New York, 1 week; and Alabama, 2 weeks. California is included in this group because no statistics are available for temporary total disabilities and Oklahoma because no statistics of the type required are available for fatalities.

TABLE 2.—*Injuries and Injury Rates for 7,169 Identical Establishments in 30 Manufacturing Industries by Extent of Disability, 1935 and 1936*—Continued

Industry	Establishments	Man-hours worked (thousands)	Number of injuries					Total time lost (days)	Frequency rate[1]	Severity rate[1]
			Resulting in—				Total			
			Death	Permanent total disability	Permanent partial disability	Temporary total disability				
1935—Continued										
Machine tools	122	36,815	7	0	43	655	705	84,326	19.15	2.29
Paper and pulp	302	173,942	31	0	272	4,432	4,735	575,244	27.22	3.31
Petroleum refining	92	87,742	11	3	112	915	1,041	244,046	11.86	2.78
Pottery	78	32,508	3	0	15	491	509	32,211	15.66	.99
Shipbuilding, steel and wood	65	46,597	12	0	65	670	747	142,099	16.03	3.05
Slaughtering and meat packing	198	199,742	26	2	350	4,819	5,197	549,147	26.02	2.75
Stamped and enameled ware	97	48,670	6	1	107	838	952	145,786	19.56	3.00
Steam fittings, apparatus, and supplies	92	29,329	1	3	38	574	616	65,434	21.00	2.23
Stoves	120	36,625	5	0	67	1,015	1,087	111,994	29.68	3.06
Woolen goods	176	124,585	5	1	133	1,867	2,006	221,969	16.10	1.78
1936										
All industries	7,169	5,001,923	583	31	5,675	79,098	85,387	10,230,233	17.07	2.05
Agricultural implements	84	97,123	9	1	183	1,738	1,931	197,169	19.88	2.03
Automobiles	136	643,374	35	1	594	5,708	6,338	753,648	9.85	1.17
Automobile tires and rubber goods	42	144,412	16	0	94	2,041	2,151	216,399	14.89	1.50
Boots and shoes	219	181,957	3	0	77	1,541	1,621	114,509	8.91	.63
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	358	49,527	14	0	52	1,863	1,929	155,566	38.95	3.14
Carpets and rugs	21	26,980	0	0	31	222	253	30,285	9.38	1.12
Chemicals	181	133,990	21	4	137	1,326	1,488	336,175	11.11	2.51
Cotton goods	293	372,207	10	0	223	4,549	4,782	382,402	12.85	1.03
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	238	440,941	26	1	369	3,006	3,402	482,647	7.72	1.09
Fertilizers	136	11,144	7	0	13	385	405	69,652	36.34	6.25
Flour, feed, and other grain-mill products	314	49,052	10	2	68	1,115	1,195	173,797	24.36	3.54
Foundry and machine-shop products	741	329,350	42	5	510	7,379	7,936	842,223	24.10	2.56
Furniture	371	145,730	6	1	291	2,251	2,549	321,772	17.49	2.21
Glass	139	114,731	15	2	58	2,076	2,151	195,427	18.75	1.70
Hardware	77	39,737	1	0	60	481	542	47,046	17.63	1.53
Iron and steel	[2] 1,756	1,018,563	170	5	964	14,921	16,060	2,142,392	15.77	2.10
Leather	141	66,817	4	0	73	1,128	1,205	114,484	18.03	1.71
Logging	61	18,466	26	0	54	1,606	1,686	269,508	91.30	14.59
Lumber:										
Planing mills	259	42,398	14	0	117	1,323	1,454	230,465	34.29	5.44
Sawmills	260	75,556	35	1	292	4,784	5,112	688,340	67.66	9.11
Machine tools	122	62,195	6	0	53	889	948	91,664	15.24	1.47
Paper and pulp	302	211,654	25	1	322	4,928	5,276	637,430	24.93	3.01
Petroleum refining	92	107,082	19	3	128	966	1,116	266,191	10.42	2.49
Pottery	78	34,247	3	0	10	508	521	35,199	15.21	1.03
Shipbuilding, steel and wood	65	68,320	20	0	89	1,262	1,371	221,472	20.07	3.24
Slaughtering and meat packing	198	233,766	24	0	373	5,968	6,365	587,210	27.23	2.51
Stamped and enameled ware	97	62,214	4	1	161	1,130	1,296	160,371	20.83	2.58
Steam fittings, apparatus, and supplies	92	45,424	7	2	36	910	955	87,515	21.02	1.93
Stoves	120	54,430	7	1	91	1,475	1,574	148,309	28.92	2.72
Woolen goods	176	129,536	4	0	152	1,619	1,775	230,966	13.70	1.78

[1] Computed from combined unweighted data for identical establishments.
The injury frequency rate is the average number of disabling injuries for each million man-hours worked. The injury severity rate is the average number of days lost for each thousand man-hours worked. The standard time-loss ratings for fatalities and permanent disabilities are given in Method of Compiling Industrial Injury Rates, approved by the American Standards Association, 1937.
[2] Departments.

Of the 30 industries covered, 22 experienced decreases in their frequency rates, and 8 experienced increases. Agricultural implements with a decrease of 10.30 points in frequency rate, from 30.18 in 1935 to 19.88 in 1936, showed the most marked improvement in decreasing the number of disabling injuries per million hours worked. Seven other industries experienced significant decreases in frequency rates: Hardware decreased in frequency rate from 23.07 in 1935 to 17.63 in 1936; fertilizers, from 41.67 to 36.34; leather, from 22.58 to 18.03; foundries, from 28.45 to 24.10; machine tools, from 19.15 to 15.24; carpets and rugs, from 12.71 to 9.38; and glass, from 21.81 to 18.75. Decreases of a noticeable degree also occurred in chemicals, from 14.04 in 1935 to 11.11 in 1936; planing mills, from 37.19 to 34.29; furniture, from 20.31 to 17.49; woolen goods, from 16.10 to 13.70; paper and pulp, from 27.22 to 24.93; and automobile tires, from 16.99 to 14.89. Decreases in the frequency rates in the other eight industries were slight.

Logging experienced the sharpest increase in frequency rate, rising from 77.05 in 1935 to 91.30 in 1936. Sawmills and shipbuilding also suffered proportionately large increases in frequency rates. The shift was from 62.85 to 67.66 in the former, and from 16.03 to 20.07 in the latter. Other increases in frequency rates were slight. Logging with a frequency rate of 91.30 in 1936 experienced the highest number of injuries per 1 million man-hours worked. Although sawmills experienced a decrease in frequency rate for 1936, it had the second highest rate.

Highly favorable shifts in severity rates were experienced by all but 6 of the 30 industries. With a decrease of 1.82, from 16.41 to 14.59, the logging industry experienced the sharpest decrease in severity rate. Sharp decreases in severity rates occurred in agricultural implements, from 3.16 in 1935 to 2.03 in 1936; chemicals, from 3.69 to 2.51; and flour mills, from 4.64 to 3.54. Noticeable shifts in severity rates were also experienced by a number of additional industries. In the fertilizer industry the severity rate decreased from 7.23 in 1935 to 6.25 in 1936; furniture, from 3.11 to 2.21; machine tools, from 2.29 to 1.47; sawmills, 9.87 to 9.11; foundries, 3.30 to 2.56; carpets and rugs, 1.78 to 1.12; leather, 2.31 to 1.71; and electrical apparatus, 1.60 to 1.09.

The only industry with a marked increase in severity rate was planing mills, with an increase from 4.75 in 1935 to 5.44 in 1936. Increases in severity rates in the other industries were slight. One industry, woolen goods, retained the same severity rate (1.78) in both years. Although in 1936 logging experienced the greatest decrease in severity, it still retained the most unfavorable rate. Sawmills came next, and fertilizers third.

Correlation of Changes in Exposure, Frequency, and Severity

In all industries, as shown in table 3, increases in exposure occurred in 1936 over 1935 in the reporting identical establishments. Correlated with increases in exposure were decreases in frequency and severity rates in 17 out of the 30 industries.

Seven industries—brick, iron and steel, logging, sawmills, slaughtering and meat packing, stamped and enameled ware, steam fittings—experienced increases in frequency rates in 1936 over 1935 and decreases in severity rates. Automobile tires, hardware, planing mills, and pottery experienced decreases in frequency rates and increases in severity rates. The only industry that showed an increase in both severity and frequency rates, along with the increase in exposure, is shipbuilding.

TABLE 3.—*Changes in Exposure, Frequency, and Severity Rates for Identical Establishments in 30 Manufacturing Industries, 1935 to 1936*

Industry	Man-hours worked		Frequency rate		Severity rate	
	Increase	Decrease	Increase	Decrease	Increase	Decrease
All industries	x			x		x
Agricultural implements	x			x		x
Automobiles	x			x		x
Automobile tires and rubber goods	x			x	x	
Boots and shoes	x			x		x
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	x		x			x
Carpets and rugs	x			x		x
Chemicals	x			x		x
Cotton goods	x			x		x
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	x			x		x
Fertilizers	x			x		x
Flour, feed, and other grain-mill products	x			x		x
Foundry and machine-shop products	x			x		x
Furniture	x			x		x
Glass	x			x		x
Hardware	x			x	x	
Iron and steel	x		x			x
Leather	x			x		x
Logging	x		x			x
Lumber:						
Planing mills	x			x	x	
Sawmills	x		x			x
Machine tools	x			x		x
Paper and pulp	x			x		x
Petroleum refining	x			x		x
Pottery	x			x	x	
Shipbuilding, steel and wood	x		x		x	
Slaughtering and meat packing	x		x			x
Stamped and enameled ware	x		x			x
Steam fittings, apparatus, and supplies	x		x			x
Stoves	x			x		x
Woolen goods	x			x	(1)	(1)

[1] Same rate for both years.

To recapitulate, in over half of the industries increased exposure was accompanied by decreased frequency and severity rates. In only one industry the opposite condition held true. A little less than a fourth of the industries experienced increased frequency rates and decreased severity rates along with increased exposure, and about an eighth of the industries showed decreased frequency and increased severity rates.

The following presents the condition in tabular form.

1. Decreased frequency and decreased severity	17
2. Increased frequency and decreased severity	7
3. Decreased frequency and increased severity	4
4. Increased frequency and increased severity	1

Rank of Industries

Table 4 gives the relative rank of the 30 manufacturing industries for 1935 and 1936 based on frequency and severity rates. Industries are rated in ascending order. First place (1) is assigned to the industry having the lowest rate, and last place (30) is assigned to the industry having the highest rate. Rank as shown in this table does not necessarily indicate that an industry experienced a lower or a higher frequency or severity rate in 1936 than it did in 1935. Rank merely expresses the relative standing of an industry to the other industries during the same year. An industry may experience a decrease in its frequency or severity rate and yet appear higher in rank than in the previous year. For definite information as to whether an industry experienced a lower or higher frequency or severity rate, table 2 should be consulted.

TABLE 4.—*Rank, According to Frequency and Severity Rates, of Identical Establishments in 30 Manufacturing Industries, 1935 and 1936* [1]

Industry	Frequency-rate rank		Severity-rate rank	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
Agricultural implements	25	17	21	14
Automobiles	3	4	5	6
Automobile tires and rubber goods	12	9	4	8
Boots and shoes	2	2	1	1
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	26	28	24	24
Carpets and rugs	5	3	8	5
Chemicals	7	6	25	18
Cotton goods	6	7	3	2
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	1	1	7	4
Fertilizers	28	27	28	28
Flour, feed, and other grain-mill products	20	22	26	26
Foundry and machine-shop products	23	21	22	20
Furniture	15	13	20	16
Glass	17	16	8	10
Hardware	19	14	6	9
Iron and steel	8	12	11	13
Leather	18	15	14	11
Logging	30	30	30	30
Lumber:				
Planing mills	27	26	27	27
Sawmills	29	29	29	29
Machine tools	13	11	13	7
Paper and pulp	22	23	23	23
Petroleum refining	4	5	16	17
Pottery	9	10	2	3
Shipbuilding, steel and wood	10	18	18	25
Slaughtering and meat packing	21	24	15	18
Stamped and enameled ware	14	19	17	21
Steam fittings, apparatus, and supplies	16	20	12	15
Stoves	24	25	19	22
Woolen goods	11	8	8	12

[1] The lowest rate is ranked first, the second lowest second, etc. 2 industries tying for the same rank were assigned the same rank number, but the next number was omitted to avoid distortion of subsequent rank numbers.

Numerous shifts in rank based on frequency occurred in 1936 as compared with 1935. Only four industries retained the same rank. Electrical apparatus ranked first in both years, boots and shoes second, sawmills twenty-ninth, and logging thirtieth. Agricultural implements changed in rank from twenty-fifth place in 1935 to seventeenth in 1936. Other industries changing ranks downward more than two places were automobile tires from twelfth to ninth place, hardware from nineteenth to fourteenth, leather from eighteenth to fifteenth, and woolen goods, eleventh to eighth place.

Shipbuilding experienced the most unfavorable shift in the scale of frequency rank, moving from tenth place in 1935 to eighteenth in 1936. A severe change from fourteenth to nineteenth place in frequency rank also occurred in the stamped- and enameled-ware industry. Changes of more than two places upward in rank were also experienced by the iron and steel industry, moving from eighth place in 1935 to twelfth in 1936, slaughtering and meat packing, twenty-first to twenty-fourth, steam fittings, from sixteenth to twentieth place.

Rank based on severity rates present a similar picture, although changes in rank were not as numerous. Nine industries retained the same places they occupied in 1935. Boots and shoes retained first place in both years, pottery second. At the other extreme, paper and pulp remained twenty-third, brick twenty-fourth, flour mills twenty-sixth, planing mills twenty-seventh, fertilizers twenty-eighth, sawmills twenty-ninth, and logging thirtieth. Both agricultural implements and chemicals experienced significant shifts in severity ranking. Each moved seven places; the former shifted from twenty-first place in 1935 to fourteenth in 1936, and the latter from twenty-fifth to eighteenth place. Not far behind came machine tools, reaching seventh place in 1936 from the thirteenth place it occupied in 1935. Other downward changes of more than two places occurred in carpets and rugs, from eighth place in 1935 to fifth in 1936, electrical apparatus, from seventh to fourth place, furniture, twentieth to sixteenth, and leather, from fourteenth to eleventh place.

Shipbuilding experienced a shift of 7 places in rank, based on severity rate, from eighteenth to twenty-fifth place. Seven other industries also changed places upward by more than two points in 1936. These were automobile tires, from fourth place in 1935 to eighth in 1936, hardware from sixth to ninth, iron and steel from eleventh to fifteenth, slaughtering and meat packing from fifteenth to eighteenth, stamped and enameled ware from seventeenth to twenty-first, stoves from nineteenth to twenty-second, and woolen goods from eighth to twelfth place.

On the whole then, the industries occupying the extremes either in frequency or severity ranks, or both, retained the same positions in

1936 as in 1935. Agricultural implements experienced the most favorable shift, both in frequency and severity ranks. Shipbuilding experienced the most unfavorable shift in both frequency and severity ranks.

Twenty industries shifted both in frequency and severity rank. It is interesting to note that 10 of these industries shifted not only in the same direction, but also that the number of places each industry changed in frequency rank did not vary more than one place from the number of places it changed in severity rank. Thus agricultural implements moved eight places in frequency rank and seven places in severity rank; carpets and rugs, frequency two places, severity three. Foundries shifted two places both in frequency and severity rank; leather, three and three. The automobile industry changed one place in frequency rank and one in severity rank; iron and steel, four and four; petroleum refining, one and one. Shipbuilding moved eight places in frequency rank and seven places in severity rank, slaughtering and meat packing three places in each, and stamped and enameled ware five in frequency rank and four in severity rank.

However, there are sufficient exceptions to this trend to prevent the general conclusion that frequency and severity rankings generally moved in the same direction and the same number of places. Outstanding exceptions are chemicals with a shift of one place in frequency and seven places in severity, hardware with a shift of five places in frequency and three places in severity, but shifting in opposite directions. Automobile tires, as well as woolen goods, changed three places in frequency rank and four places in severity rank, but likewise shifted in opposite directions.

Disability Distribution

The data presented thus far involved injury rates computed on the basis of man-hour exposure. The frequency rate is the average number of injuries for each million man-hours worked, and the severity rate is the average number of days lost for each thousand man-hours worked. While both rates are essential to an understanding of the incidence of disabling injuries and the time lost involved, they, being measures based on exposure, fail to convey a definite idea of the seriousness of the injuries themselves. Neither do the rates indicate whether in 1 year there were more fatalities or permanent disabilities in proportion to the total number of injuries than in some other year. It is important to know whether a given time loss is caused by a small number of fatalities and permanent disabilities, or by a large number of temporary total disabilities.

Table 5 has been constructed for the purpose of presenting a more complete analysis of industrial injuries than is afforded by the injury frequency and severity rates. In this disability distribution table the severity of the injuries is expressed in two ways: First, by presenting on a common basis of 1,000 injuries the proportionate distribution of the injuries among the types of disabilities, thus giving a measure of the shift to or from injuries of a permanent nature; and, secondly, by computing the average number of days lost per disability which reveals the seriousness of the injuries more definitely than the severity rate does. As the disability distribution measures the shift from one type of disability to another, so the average days lost per injury measures the shift within each type of disability.

TABLE 5.—*Disability Distribution Per 1,000 Injuries and Average Days Lost Per Disability for Identical Establishments in 30 Manufacturing Industries, 1935 and 1936*

Industry	Death and permanent total disability [1]		Permanent partial disability				Temporary total disability			
	Number per 1,000 injuries		Number per 1,000 injuries		Average days lost per disability		Number per 1,000 injuries		Average days lost per disability	
	1935	1936	1935	1936	1935	1936	1935	1936	1935	1936
All industries	7	7	74	67	923	902	919	926	19	18
Agricultural implements	2	5	92	95	802	600	906	900	18	16
Automobiles	6	6	98	94	734	705	896	900	23	21
Automobile tires and rubber goods	5	7	41	44	821	899	954	949	24	18
Boots and shoes	2	2	56	47	825	927	942	951	16	16
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	10	7	26	27	681	852	964	966	17	15
Carpets and rugs	3	0	119	123	891	882	878	877	15	13
Chemicals	22	17	94	92	1,194	1,115	884	891	20	21
Cotton goods	4	2	55	47	1,037	1,080	941	951	16	18
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	8	8	127	108	777	742	865	884	19	16
Fertilizers	15	17	52	32	1,325	1,646	933	951	14	16
Flour, feed, and other grain-mill products	12	10	62	57	1,516	1,219	926	933	20	17
Foundry and machine-shop products	5	6	76	64	906	858	919	930	18	17
Furniture	7	3	121	114	815	850	872	883	15	14
Glass	6	8	36	27	851	1,016	958	965	17	17
Hardware	0	2	105	111	488	575	895	887	13	14
Iron and steel	10	11	71	60	843	801	919	929	24	21
Leather	4	3	62	61	1,009	1,005	934	936	15	15
Logging	19	15	52	32	1,487	1,408	929	953	26	23
Lumber:										
Planing mills	6	10	70	80	1,058	1,077	924	910	17	15
Sawmills	7	7	68	57	1,384	1,297	925	936	21	20
Machine tools	10	6	61	56	722	791	929	938	17	15
Paper and pulp	7	5	57	61	1,115	1,216	936	934	19	18
Petroleum refining	13	20	108	115	1,237	856	879	865	23	25
Pottery	6	6	29	19	390	960	965	975	17	15
Shipbuilding, steel and wood	16	15	87	65	879	915	897	920	19	16
Slaughtering and meat packing	6	4	67	58	884	965	927	938	15	14
Stamped and enameled ware	7	4	113	124	841	713	880	872	16	14
Steam fittings, apparatus, and supplies	6	9	62	38	830	565	932	953	17	14
Stoves	4	5	62	58	940	830	934	937	19	17
Woolen goods	3	2	66	86	1,168	1,174	931	912	16	18

[1] Each death or permanent total disability is charged with a time loss of 6,000 days.

The number of deaths and permanent total disabilities [5] per 1,000 injuries for all reporting establishments remained at 7 in both 1935 and 1936. During the same period, however, the permanent partial disabilities decreased 7 in the number per 1,000 injuries, from 74 to 67, and decreased 21 in the average days lost per disability, from 923 to 902. On the average, then, industrial injuries were of a less severe nature in 1936 as compared with 1935, showing a combined decrease of all permanent disabilities from 81 per 1,000 injuries to 74. This shift toward injuries of a less serious nature is further reflected in the average days lost of the temporary total disabilities, which declined from 19 days per injury to 18.

Although, for the industry as a whole, the number of deaths and permanent total disabilities remained unchanged, considerable increases and decreases were experienced in the individual industries. For the chemical industry the number per 1,000 injuries dropped from 22 in 1935 to 17 in 1936, brick from 10 to 7, furniture from 7 to 3, logging from 19 to 15, machine tools from 10 to 6, and stamped and enameled ware from 7 to 4. The shipbuilding industry reduced its high ratio of deaths and permanent total disabilities by 1, from 16 to 15. The sharpest increases in this type of disability occurred in four of the industries: Agricultural implements advanced from 2 in 1935 to 5 in 1936, planing mills from 6 to 10, petroleum from 13 to 20, and steam fittings from 6 to 9.

The distribution of the permanent partial disabilities showed a marked decrease in the number of this type of disability per 1,000 injuries. Twenty of the thirty manufacturing industries experienced decreases in the number per 1,000 injuries, and 15 had decreases in the average days lost per disability. Three of the most significant decreases in the number per 1,000 injuries were accompanied by corresponding decreases in the average days lost per injury. The number of permanent partial disabilities per 1,000 injuries for electrical apparatus dropped from 127 to 108, for logging from 52 to 32, and for steam fittings from 62 to 38. The outstanding decrease in the average days lost for these 3 industries occurred in steam fittings, which declined from 830 days in 1935 to 565 in 1936. Other noticeable decreases in the proportion of permanent partial injuries were experienced by fertilizer (52 to 32), glass (36 to 27), pottery (29 to 19), and shipbuilding (87 to 65). These decreases in the number of this type of injury, however, were partially offset by increases in the average time lost. Fertilizer rose from 1,325 days per injury to 1,646 days, glass from 851 to 1,016, pottery from 390 to 960, and shipbuilding from 879 to 915.

[5] Combined because the number of permanent total disabilities is very small, and because both types of injuries are charged with a time loss of 6,000 days per case.

The outstanding increase in the number per 1,000 injuries for the permanent partial disabilities occurred in the woolen-goods industry, which rose from 66 to 86 with the average days lost remaining practically the same. Planing mills also experienced a sharp increase in the number of permanent injuries, from 70 to 80. On the other hand, agricultural implements which had only a slight increase in the number of permanent injuries (92 to 95) experienced a sharp drop in the average days lost, from 802 to 600. Four of the six industries with the highest ratios in the permanent partial disabilities experienced further increases in the number per 1,000 injuries. Carpets and rugs increased 4, from 119 to 123; hardware 6, from 105 to 111; petroleum refining 7, from 108 to 115; and stamped and enameled ware 11, from 113 to 124. Carpets and rugs, petroleum refining, and stamped and enameled ware, however, had decreases in the average time lost per injury. The sharpest drop occurred in petroleum refining, decreasing from 1,237 days per injury to 856 days.

Decreases in the average days lost per temporary total disability were experienced by 21 of the 30 individual industries. The most noteworthy decrease occurred in automobile tires which fell from 24 to 18. Sizable decreases were also experienced in electrical apparatus (19 to 16), flour mills (20 to 17), iron and steel (24 to 21), logging (26 to 23), shipbuilding (19 to 16), and steam fittings (17 to 14). The average time lost per disability remained unchanged in the boots and shoes, glass, and leather industries, with 16, 17, and 15 days, respectively.

In measuring the severity of the injuries to the workers the logging industry experienced, on the whole, the largest decreases in 1936 than any other industry. Per 1,000 injuries, the number of deaths and permanent total disabilities decreased 4, from 19 to 15, and the permanent partial disabilities fell 20, from 52 to 32. The average time lost for the permanent partial disabilities decreased slightly from 1,487 days per injury to 1,408 and the temporary total decreased considerably, from 26 to 23.

Industrial Relations

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING ON THE NEW YORK CITY TRANSIT LINES, 1937[1]

DURING 1937 collective bargaining was generally established for the first time in the New York City passenger transportation industry. With the signing of 11 contracts before the close of the year, the Transport Workers' Union has been recognized as the sole bargaining agent for the workers in the major surface transit lines, for most of the taxicab drivers, and for elevated and underground transportation with the exception of the city-owned Independent Subway System.

The improvements won in working conditions through collective bargaining have paralleled the gains made in union recognition. The total annual wage increase is estimated by union officials to be over $9,000,000. Average weekly wages of bus operators increased $3 after the signing of the contracts. Taxi agreements liberalized the commissions sufficiently to raise earnings from 10 to 25 percent, and guaranteed minimum weekly wages were also established. A flat 10-percent increase in wages was provided in the subway contracts. Under the graduated system of wages characteristic of the transit industry, whereby the number of years of service influences the wage, the union has succeeded in scaling down the time interval before maximum wages are reached.

Hours have been shortened for 50 percent of all the transportation workers under contract. Provisions for consecutive hours, as well as maximum hours, represent an important benefit to bus and trolley operators. The practice of 12-, 14-, and 16-hour working days had prevailed; that is, during these hours the men were on call although they were paid for only the 8 or 9 hours actually spent operating the vehicles. As against the previous standard of 52 weeks' work a year and the frequent 7-day week, vacations with pay and a 6-day week have been prevalently established.

The abolition of the long-established regulation that no button nor emblem of any type was to be displayed on the uniforms of transit workers is a significant feature of union recognition.

[1] By Frances Wheeler, under the direction of Florence Peterson, Chief, Industrial Relations Division, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

History of the Organization

The present collective agreements represent the culmination of 50 years of attempts by organized labor to secure union recognition and collective bargaining on the transit lines of New York City. After several strikes in 1885–86, the Knights of Labor won virtual recognition and materially improved carmen's conditions. After the decline of the Knights of Labor, organization activities were taken over by the Amalgamated Association of Street Railway Employees of America, affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. Unionization progressed slowly. In 1904 an agreement was signed with several companies, but the provisions were unsatisfactory to the local unions, who thereupon called a strike which was repudiated by the national officers. The strike was lost, several local charters were revoked, and union organization received a serious setback.

For 12 years the unions were relatively inactive. In 1916 the Interborough Rapid Transit Co. inaugurated the policy of requiring employees to sign individual contracts not to join the union. After challenging this action of the company and failing to secure the company's consent to arbitration, the members of the Amalgamated Association went on strike. The companies spent over 3½ million dollars for strikebreaking services.[2] The strike was lost after a great deal of disorder and many arrests of strikers. The company continued its insistence on individual bargaining and soon after the strike established the Brotherhood of Interborough Rapid Transit Employees, with a constitution approved by the directors of the company.

The constitution of the brotherhood as amended in 1920 was made a standard individual contract, which required that every employee be a member of the brotherhood and renounce any connection with the Amalgamated Association or any other association of street-railway or other employees. The men were subdivided, some by crafts, some by departments, and some geographically, for representation on the general committee. This committee, the officers of which drew salaries from the company, was given absolute rule-making and assessing power, the right to terminate any individual contract (which automatically caused the discharge of the employee involved), and also the power to disfranchise groups or locals, remove representatives from its council, and veto bylaws passed by a local. Only by a two-thirds vote of the general committee could the constitution be amended, and then only with the consent of the company.

A parallel development took place on the other large subway line. In answer to an investigation by the War Labor Board in 1918, the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Co. (since reorganized as the Brooklyn-

[2] National Labor Relations Board. Report to the La Follette Civil Liberties Investigation Hearings, 1936. Vol. 1, p. 80.

Manhattan Transit Corporation) maintained that it was recognizing the right of the employees to organize and bargain collectively by allowing membership only in the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Employees' Benefit Association, which had been in existence since 1900. Although the Board disapproved,[3] the benefit association was continued. Following a strike in 1920, in which the Amalgamated Association of Street Railway Employees was defeated, the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Employees' Benefit Association was supplemented by an antiunion individual agreement, which read, "I am not a member of the Amalgamated Association and I will not become a member while in the employ of the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Co." Thus the only active union was excluded.

In 1927, after an independent organization among the motormen of the Interborough Rapid Transit Co. attempted a strike, the Amalgamated Association resumed active organizing work. The company sought an injunction restraining the union organizers on the ground that they were inducing breach of contract among its employees. It was granted pending litigation, but on appeal [4] to the Circuit Court of Appeals of New York the court held that the constitution of the brotherhood could not be considered a binding contract of employment, and that since the constitution was based on mutual consent, it could be terminated at the will of either party at a moment's notice. The Interborough Rapid Transit Co. and the general committee of the brotherhood thereupon agreed to a new individual contract specifying a fixed period of employment. The company agreed to employ only members of the brotherhood, and the latter agreed to a proviso that its members should work for 2 years "unless in the meantime, by mutual consent, my employment is sooner terminated."

Certain of the Amalgamated's organizers continued their activity, and an injunction was again sought on the grounds of attempts to induce breach of contract. In this case [5] the court found the contract not reciprocal nor equitable in its guaranties, in that "unlimited and practically unhampered power to discharge is given the company" in return for the promises of the employees. These two decisions were

[3] In this case (*Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers* vs. *New York Consolidated R. R. No. 283*) the Board rejected the argument and said: "The form of benefit association seems to have been changed from time to time, but one feature which has persisted is that the president of the company has appointed the president of the association and the president of the association has either himself conducted the elections or appointed persons to do so. * * * Where a company-formed association is offered as a substitute for an association of the voluntary formation of the men, the slightest suspicion of an opportunity for unfairness on the part of the employer is itself reason for questioning the usefulness of such an organization. * * * Following the section of proclaimed principles of the Board above set forth, it must be ruled that the employees of the company who desire to become members of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, or any other legitimate labor organization, shall be permitted to do so without denial, abridgement, or interference upon the part of the company." The 20 employees discharged for union affiliation were ordered reinstated, but the benefit association was not affected by the Board's order.

[4] *Interborough Rapid Transit Co.* vs. *Lavin et al*, 247 N. Y. 65, 159 N. E. 863 (1928).

[5] *Interborough Rapid Transit Co.* vs. *Wm. Green et al*, 227 N. Y. S. 258 (1928).

hailed by labor as substantial indictment of the use of "yellow-dog" contracts.

Nevertheless, conditions remained the same until December 1934, when a new agreement was effected by the N. R. A. compliance director. This eliminated the clause prohibiting the Interborough Rapid Transit Co. from hiring anyone not a member of the brotherhood. There was no change with respect to the Brooklyn Manhattan Transit Co., since it maintained that it was not subject to the jurisdiction of the transit code, that the company union was a bona fide instrument for the expression of the employees' will, and that the company was morally bound to continue to recognize its obligation to the Brooklyn Manhattan Transit Benefit Association. Action was withheld by the N. R. A. in a case of reinstating several discharged employees, and the company union was not affected.

Meanwhile, a small independent organization known as the Transport Workers Union was rapidly growing in membership and influence among the employees of the Interborough Rapid Transit Co. It made its first bid for recognition in March 1935, when it sent an elected delegation with a petition signed by 2,000 members to the regional labor board to request a referendum among the Interborough Rapid Transit employees. No action was taken before the time of the termination of the N. R. A. and the subsequent closing of the N. R. A. labor boards. Two years later the company agreed to such a referendum under the supervision of the regional office of the N. L. R. B. When the ballot of the 14,000 employees was taken in April 1937, the Transport Workers Union won 92 percent of the votes.

Meanwhile, in the spring of 1936, this independent union became a local of the International Association of Machinists. In May 1937 it severed connections with the International Association of Machinists and voted affiliation with the Committee for Industrial Organization. During this time membership in the New York City local has mounted to over 43,000. Jurisdiction of the Transport Workers Union extends over all passenger transportation facilities exclusive of steam railroads and water transportation.

Adoption of the Agreements

The recognition of collective bargaining has been facilitated by the election machinery offered by the State labor relations board. Every election ordered by the board to determine the bargaining agent has been won by the Transport Workers Union. In the cases of the East Side Omnibus Corporation and the Comprehensive Omnibus Corporation the Employees' Welfare Association won the election, but upon failure to win any concessions from management it disbanded in favor of the Transport Workers Union.

In the Brooklyn Manhattan Transit case, mediation by a special board was necessary before the agreement was consummated. A referendum for determination of the bargaining agency gave the Transport Workers Union an overwhelming majority in all but two units. The union immediately insisted on a contract, although the old contracts with 21 employee groups under the representation plan did not expire until October 1938. Negotiations for over a month brought no agreement, and the executive council of the union was authorized by the membership to call a strike. Mayor La Guardia secured the consent of both sides to appoint an advisory fact-finding board, with the understanding that neither party need abide by the board's findings. Before the three-man board had finished its investigation an agreement was signed on October 11, 1937.

A new problem involving the rights of city employees has arisen in the case of the city-owned Independent Subway System. A representation plan is in effect for these subway employees, based on 10 occupational classifications. In a referendum held in March 1937 the Transport Workers Union and the Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway Employees claimed 51 of the 79 employee representatives. On October 21, 1937, the Transport Workers claimed a majority among the 5,400 employees and petitioned the State labor relations board for certification as bargaining agent and also for an investigation of the employer-employee relations. The Board of Transportation refused to attend any hearings or informal conferences, on the ground that it was a publicly owned agency and as such specifically exempt from the provisions of the State labor relations law. On January 23, 1938, the State board ruled that its jurisdiction did not extend to the Independent City Subway employees, since this operating body was a subdivision of the municipality. The Transport Workers Union is now seeking to have the labor relations law amended to include city functions of a proprietary nature.

Strike action has been negligible in the conclusion of all the agreements on transport lines. Unrest in the taxicab industry, however, prevailed after the original contracts were signed in the summer of 1937. Attempts to break the closed-shop clauses resulted in general strife. The Parmelee Co. terminated its contract in early December because it claimed that the union had failed to enforce the terms of its agreements on other competitors. The taxicab agreements stipulate that the union must not grant more favorable terms to competing lines than were accorded any one company. A general strike was averted at this time by the signing of new agreements with four of the largest operating companies. A strike was called against the fifth company, negotiations resulting in the signing of an agreement a few days later.

Provisions of the Agreements

The contracts of the union cover three general transportation groups: Bus companies, subway and surface electric lines, and the taxi-operating companies. All of the agreements provide for sole bargaining rights and a closed union shop. Union hiring halls are established for taxicab drivers in the recent agreement. Under the subway and bus contracts all employees are required to join the union within 30 days after they have been hired.

THE BUS CONTRACTS

The hours provisions in the bus agreements seek to stabilize the "run" system. In the Comprehensive Omnibus Corporation and the East Side Omnibus Corporation contracts, time and one-half is guaranteed after 10 hours' service, and men may not be compelled to wait more than 2 hours after reporting for work if they are not assigned to a "run." The Fifth Avenue Coach Co. agreement guarantees 5 hours' pay for any run taking less than 5 hours, and provides that men called in for Sunday "sunshine runs" be given 2 hours' pay when the run is canceled because of rain.

Mechanical and maintenance men of the lowest-paid categories benefited most by wage increases, the largest increase of 29 percent going to the electricians' helpers. For drivers, where a graduated system of wages is typical, higher hourly rates were set in the New York City Omnibus Corporation agreement, with a top rate of 82 cents and first-year rates of 65 cents. The Fifth Avenue Coach Co. agreed to a 73-cent hourly rate for first-year men. These agreements include a week's vacation with pay and provision for negotiation this year for a second week's vacation. The union considered as its greatest gain a clause in the Fifth Avenue Coach Co. contract prohibiting the company from reducing its two-man buses to one-man operation without consent of the union. Preference is also given conductors in filling vacancies of drivers.

THE RAPID TRANSIT CONTRACTS

Among the subway and street railway workers 10 percent increases were general, with a minimum weekly wage of $25 on the Brooklyn-Manhattan Transit and the Interborough Rapid Transit. All bus and trolley operators employed by the Third Avenue Railway and the Brooklyn-Manhattan Transit are guaranteed the maximum rate of pay after 5 years of service. A 48-hour 6-day week was set for the motive power department of the Interborough Rapid Transit Co., with a like reduction promised in other departments, contingent on the cost of such a reduction and the levying of a utility tax on the company by the city of New York. Paid vacations of 1 week after

6 months of service are guaranteed by all the companies, with provision for a 2 weeks' vacation for those employed for 5 years or more.

An interesting development in the negotiations with the Interborough Rapid Transit was the setting aside of the old pension plan. Employees had protested for several years that the plan set up under the old brotherhood was actuarially unsound, but the company had refused to permit withdrawals from the system, under which employees contributed 3 percent of their wages. As a result of recent negotiations the company returned a total of $2,000,000 to the employees, which amounted to from $150 to $200 a man. Company contributions, with interest accumulated over the 30 years the plan was in effect, will be transferred to a separate pension fund sufficient to assure 16,000 employees a pension at the rate of 1 percent of their wages for each year of service up to July 1, 1937. For subsequent service the employees will receive benefits under the Federal Social Security Act. The company will continue to make contributions for 5 years for employees over 60 years of age who are ineligible for Federal Social Security old-age payments. The employees of the Brooklyn Manhattan Transit Co. have the privilege of adopting a similar pension plan.

THE TAXICAB CONTRACTS

The guarantee of a minimum wage is an important innovation in the agreement with 5 taxicab operating companies, covering about 15,000 full-time drivers. Drivers employed on single shifts receive a minimum of $18 a week; on double shift, day line, a minimum of $15 for each full week; on double shift, night line, a minimum of $18. The commission rate on bookings has been raised from 40 to 42½ percent of fares recorded on the taximeter. One week's vacation is established for which taxicab drivers are paid $25 and maintenance men receive a week's wage.

In an attempt to drive out "floaters"—men who work a day or two a week—it is provided that no man shall be hired for less than a full working week of 48 hours for day men and 54 hours for night men within a 6-day week. This policy is expected to cut down the number of cabs on the street and assure for drivers who earn their entire income at this occupation a better opportunity for higher earnings. Besides union control of hiring through a system of hiring halls in Manhattan, Bronx, and Brooklyn, the "check-off" for collection of union dues is also provided.

No employee may be suspended or discharged unless the company and the union agree that just cause exists, or in event of disagreement, the arbitrator finds such cause exists. An exception is made in the case of a driver guilty of the use of intoxicants while on duty or of a serious personal-injury accident, who may be suspended pending

investigation by the union or, in the event that the union and the company cannot agree on the propriety of suspension, pending arbitration. Low bookings as a reason for discharge shall not apply to one union shop steward in each garage. If the arbitrator determines that a suspension or discharge was without cause, reinstatement will be ordered and an award of pay for time lost will be made.

LABOR ESPIONAGE: SUMMARY OF SENATE INQUIRY

FOR many years it has been known that undercover agents have been used in many industries to spy on workers and labor unions, but prior to the Senate inquiry beginning in 1936, information was fragmentary. On June 6, 1936, a Subcommittee [1] of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor was appointed to investigate violations of the rights of free speech and assembly and interference with the right of labor to organize and bargain collectively. Preliminary hearings held under Senate Resolution No. 266 revealed spying as a grave menace to the rights of workers to organize and to enjoy the civil liberties granted by the Constitution. Hearings held by the subcommittee and the extensive documentary evidence collected by it afford an unprecedented revelation of labor espionage, strikebreaking, and munitioning. The committee's inquiry has been summarized, insofar as it relates to labor espionage, in a recently published Senate report.[2]

The extremely large field assigned by the Senate to its committee and the difficulties incident to such an investigation made necessary the limiting of the investigation to sampling studies. These studies, however, revealed a striking recurrence of typical patterns. The committee hearings were public and witnesses were summoned from every party having an interest in the proceedings. Full opportunity was given to each witness without exception to present his case and to refute or rebut any damaging testimony or evidence. In addition, all of the witnesses were advised that any pertinent data they desired to submit could be inserted in the records of the committee. Many of the witnesses took advantage of this opportunity. The report of the committee is based not only on the hearings but on the additional data submitted by witnesses and on the affidavits and other evidence collected by the staff of the subcommittee.

Detective services include protection against thefts, frauds, and violations of safety rules. The Senate subcommittee was not directly concerned with these types of detective work, but its investigations

[1] Commonly known as the Civil Liberties Committee, composed of Senators Robert M. LaFollette, Jr., Chairman, Elbert D. Thomas, and before his death on July 6, 1936, Louis Murphy.

[2] U. S. Congress. Senate. Committee on Education and Labor. Industrial Espionage: Violations of Free Speech and Rights of Labor. Washington, 1937. Senate Report No. 46, Part 3 (75th Cong., 2d sess.). Extensive hearings had previously been published, and additional hearings and reports are expected, covering phases of the inquiry other than labor espionage.

revealed that they have been relatively insignificant. Industrial espionage was described by the committee as the most efficient method to prevent unions from forming, to weaken them when they secure a foothold, and to wreck them when they try their strength. On examination, various other alleged purposes of espionage were repudiated by the officials who had in the first place advanced them as explanations of the prevalence of spying. Among the principal purposes at first advanced by agency officials, but shown to be without foundation by the committee, were the protection of industry from Communists and the promotion of "human engineering" by increasing the efficiency of workers or by improving relations between workers and employers.

The obstacles encountered by the committee in obtaining information are themselves indicative of the character and purposes of industrial espionage. Elaborate devices are used by the agencies and their clients to conceal the names and activities and indeed the existence of spies. Instances were revealed of specific violations of State and Federal laws. The committee obtained clear evidence of premeditated and deliberate effort to destroy the documentary evidence to which it had a legal right. There was a systematic and thorough destruction of documents subpenaed by the committee, and fragments of the subpenaed papers were recovered from waste paper in process of destruction collected from the offices of agencies in several cities. These fragments, when reconstructed, proved to be journal sheets, card files of operatives, spy reports, letters from salesmen, and interoffice correspondence, all of which were documents specifically called for by the subpena. One large agency with many branch offices attempted to destroy the records of industrial espionage remaining in their offices on the date the subpena was served. Another agency sent a collection of spy reports out of the back door of its main office while a staff member of the committee was entering the front door with a subpena. Stripping of files, the establishment of secret offices, repeated transfer of records from office to office, the use of ink eradicators on ledgers, evasive and deceptive answers to committee questions, and refusal to reply to questions were among the methods used to obstruct the course of the investigation.

Extent of Practice

Because of the extreme opposition and the concealed nature of the activities under investigation, the information obtained by the subcommittee regarding the extent of espionage is far from complete. Fragmentary information made possible the listing of 3,871 industrial spies for the years 1933 to 1936, but this number is confined to those revealed by available records of only a part of the large number of detective agencies. Approximately 2,500 business firms are known

to have obtained spy services from agencies in the years 1933 to 1936, and many companies maintain their own spies or obtain spy service from associations of employers.

Some of the firms that furnish spy service claim to be engineering firms, publishers, auditors, or attorneys. Many of the detective agencies have branch offices in the principal cities of the country. In some cases, they operate through a network of subsidiaries with variable names as an aid in concealing the nature and extent of their activities. The Senate subcommittee made separate studies of a few of the larger agencies and in addition sent out over 800 questionnaires to agencies believed to be engaged in industrial work. Of these, 155 either reported themselves as active in supplying this type of service or were found by the subcommittee to be so engaged. Replies from 500 agencies failed to acknowledge their connection with espionage. No replies were received from 250 agencies. The replies of the agencies which responded to the request of the committee for information were described by the committee as being "so much at variance with evidence before the committee that they were for the most part untrustworthy, if not completely fraudulent." From independent evidence, the committee established the fact that at least 50 of the 500 agencies which claimed to be inactive were actually carrying on labor-spy services. The committee was without time or means to check the veracity of most of the agencies which claimed to be inactive.

The commercialization of industrial espionage was shown by the committee to have serious consequences in aggravating industrial conflicts and in stirring up trouble in order to promote the business of spying. The evidence indicates clearly that the detective agencies frequently send spies into plants without the consent or knowledge of the employer for the purpose of creating disturbances and bringing pressure to bear upon employers for the hiring of spies. The reports of spies who operate in plants with the knowledge of the employer are frequently edited in the offices of the agency in such way as to give erroneous or exaggerated impressions of labor conditions, and the spies are frequently encouraged to exaggerate or falsify their reports for the purpose of inducing employers to continue or to expand the activities of employees of the agencies.

These methods are likely to be particularly vicious and destructive of peaceful industrial relations when the detective agencies also carry on strikebreaking and munitioning activities or are associated closely with other firms that carry on these related activities.[3]

The close connection between industrial espionage and opposition to unionism is revealed by the practice of placing spies in unions. An operative of one of the larger agencies stated during the Senate

[3] Separate reports are announced on Industrial Munitioning, and Strikebreaking and Coercion.

hearings that in his experience of 20 years, he had found that there were "stools" in every union organization. The records of another agency revealed membership in unions by 304 of its detectives, and of this number 100 held offices in unions. These offices were as follows:

National vice president	1	Organizer	3
Local president	14	Delegate to Central Labor Union	3
Local vice president	8	Chairman, shop committee	1
Local treasurer	2	Committeeman	6
Local secretary	20	Financial secretary	4
Recording secretary	14	Member, executive board	4
Trustee	14	Division chairman	1
Business agent	3	Local chairman	2

There are several types of operatives. These include the ordinary detective employed specifically for the purpose of carrying on spying and related activities. Such regular or "professional" operatives may engage in shadowing or sleuthing or general investigation without requiring the use of a disguise. These are called "backroom boys." There are others who operate under various disguises, and the fiction used to conceal an operative's connection with a detective agency is called a "cover" or "pretext." An operative may work inside a plant, in direct contact with employees, or he may carry on his activities in the general neighborhood of a plant, particularly among the wives of workers. A frequently used name for an outside operative is "missionary." In addition to the regularly employed or professional operatives, there are large numbers of "hooked" or "roped" operatives. A "hooked" man is an employee engaged as an informer without knowledge of the fact that he is reporting to a detective agency and through the agency to the employer. Similar in meaning is the term "roping", used particularly in connection with securing information by striking up acquaintance or friendship with union men. "Hooking" and "roping" are usually accomplished by approaching the person from whom or through whom information is to be obtained under a "pretext" or "cover", for example, under the claim that the "hooker" or "roper" is a salesman, insurance agent, or representative of some interest other than the employer or detective agency. The "missionary" also uses a "cover."

The character, motives, and careers of industrial spies were revealed in the Senate hearings and in the documentary materials obtained by the Senate subcommittee in such manner as to show that commercialized spying is a major menace to organized labor and to any orderly, peaceful, or essentially liberal process of maintaining industrial relations. The hearings and the committee report on labor espionage reveal an alarming frequency of criminal records among operatives of detective agencies, together with the use of illegal and violent methods and the practice of blaming their lawlessness on its victims.

Harmful Effects

The effects of industrial espionage on workers were revealed in numerous cases by the Senate investigation. One of numerous cases of the disruption of labor unions by spies acting as members and officials of unions was described by a witness during the hearings:

> When I first went into Flint I could not get more than 25 or 30 people together, and I was very much interested in the reason. So I made personal calls all through the city to find out why they would not come. They were afraid. They knew there was spies in the local union because they had seen the movement go from 26,000 to 122. They knew they were being watched. Therefore it was necessary for me to organize little home meetings in members' basements after work, sometimes with the lights out; they were so skeptical; we would sit in the dark and talk to these people. One week end we had 19 home meetings, all day Saturday and Sunday. After we were strong enough we tied the meetings together and came out in the open, but in the first meetings it was necessary to work along those lines because of the spy system built up so effectively it had broken the labor movement in Flint.

Among the other methods used by detective agencies to interfere with the right of association and related civil liberties of workers has been the formation of "company unions" or "employee associations." Detective agencies, in their solicitations of business, set forth to employers their actual achievements in organizing such groups, which were described by the agencies as instrumentalities for disrupting or checking the growth of unions not subject to control by the employer.

The harmful effects of labor espionage on employers is revealed by the practice of commercialized agencies of sending spies into plants without the knowledge of employers, for the purpose of stirring up trouble and making exaggerated or false reports and thus inducing employers to hire spies. There are instances of one agency spying on another agency, of one company spying on another company, and even of operatives of an agency spying on each other. Spying feeds on itself; and different branches of the same company have felt it necessary to build up separate "protective" systems. In the words of a professional spy subpenaed before the subcommittee, "In this business, nobody trusts each other." The Senate committee reported that "industry cannot survive this endless dependence upon unreliable knowledge that begets fear of all things and of all men."

The interests of the public as well as of employers and employees are seriously menaced by industrial espionage. The committee's investigation revealed the use of informers to shadow public officials during the course of nationally important conciliation proceedings. In the view of the committee, its hearings indicated that the denial to workers of the right to organize free from employer restraint and interference was the "most important problem of civil liberties before the Nation, because denying workers the right to organize almost

invariably meant denying them the fundamental civil rights which are the basis of our democratic system. * * * In fact, the committee's studies strongly suggest that the right to organize is indeed fundamental, if only because the practices invoked by employers to nullify this right—spying, strikebreaking, and munitioning—are so subversive of our most vital law and democratic processes."

SETTLEMENT OF RAILWAY DISPUTES IN 1936–37[1]

THE National Mediation Board and the National Railroad Adjustment Board were established by amendments in 1934 to the Railway Labor Act of 1926. The purpose of the Act is to insure that service rendered by the railways and air lines of the country be not menaced nor disturbed by labor difficulties. Basic in peaceful labor conditions are agreements entered into between employers and representatives who are freely chosen by the employees. To assure free choice of representatives, the National Mediation Board is empowered to investigate disputes among employees over representation and to certify who may serve as representatives. In its capacity of mediator the Board facilitates the establishment of labor standards and the incorporation of such standards in written agreements.

The third year's work of the Board reveals increasing stabilization of labor relations on the railways through the settlement of labor-representation disputes and the negotiation of labor agreements establishing rates of pay, rules, and working conditions. While the number of representation disputes arising each year since 1934 has tended to remain substantially constant, the number of employees and the number of crafts or classes of employees involved therein have decreased. The indications are that when such disputes are once settled on their merits under the provisions of the act they tend to remain settled, particularly so if agreements with properly determined representatives are promptly negotiated.

The progressive stabilization of labor representation enabled the Board, during its third year, to devote much more of its time to mediation proceedings. Almost twice as many mediation cases were settled as compared with the previous 2 years. The total number of cases received and disposed of by the Board during 1936–37 is shown in the following table.

[1] United States National Mediation Board. Third Annual Report including Report of the National Railroad Adjustment Board, for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1937. Washington, 1937.

TABLE 1.—*Cases Received and Disposed of, Year Ending June 30, 1937*

Item	Mediation	Representation	Total
Open cases:			
On hand June 30, 1936	138	47	185
Received July 1, 1936–June 30, 1937	115	107	222
Total	253	154	407
Cases disposed of	158	101	259
On hand June 30, 1937	95	53	148

There were 168 crafts, including 57,923 workers, involved in the 101 representation disputes disposed of. In table 2 these cases are classified by parties to the disputes.

TABLE 2.—*Types of Labor Organizations Contending to Represent Employees and Number of Employees Involved*

Parties to disputes	Cases	Crafts or classes	Employees involved
National organizations versus system associations	26	52	44,581
National organizations versus unorganized employees	40	78	6,034
Local unions versus system associations	2	2	1,117
Local unions versus unorganized employees	2	2	334
Total national or local unions versus system associations and unorganized employees	70	134	52,066
National organizations versus national organizations	27	30	4,928
National organizations versus local unions	4	4	929
Total interunion disputes	31	34	5,857
Grand total	101	168	57,923

In 18 of the 70 disputes of national or local unions versus system associations [2] and unorganized employees, representatives were recognized without certification, withdrawn as a result of investigation, withdrawn prior to investigation, or dismissed. Elections were held or authorizations made by the Board in 52 cases involving 94 crafts. National labor organizations won 76 certifications, system associations 12, and local unions 4. Elections in 2 crafts resulted in no majority and hence no certification. As demonstrated by percentages, although less than two-thirds of the employees preferred national labor organizations, the representation of more than four-fifths of the crafts was won by them.

[2] Unaffiliated with any national or international union.

TABLE 3.—*Type of Organization Chosen to Represent Employees in Disputes Between Unions and System Associations or Unorganized Employees*

Method of choice	Cases	Crafts or classes	Certification issued to—					
			National labor organizations		System associations		Local unions	
			Crafts or classes	Percent	Crafts or classes	Percent	Crafts or classes	Percent
Elections	32	[1] 55	39	70.91	12	21.82	2	3.64
Proved authorizations	20	39	37	94.87	0	0.00	2	5.13
Total	52	[1] 94	76	80.85	12	12.77	4	4.26

Method of choice	Employees voting for or otherwise choosing—					
	National labor organizations		System associations		Local unions	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Elections	12,031	62.53	6,441	33.48	767	3.99
Proved authorizations	1,279	87.96	12	.83	163	11.21
Total	13,310	64.32	6,453	31.19	930	4.49

[1] Elections in 2 crafts or classes resulted in no majority for any organization and no certifications were made for these. The votes of the employees in these 2 crafts or classes are included in the number of employees voting.

Elections were held in 23 cases, involving 24 crafts and 2,960 workers, in which the dispute was among national labor organizations or between national labor organizations and local unions. Five other interunion disputes were dismissed by the Board, and 3 were withdrawn by the parties. The total of 4,828 employees involved in the 31 interunion contests in the year reviewed is less than half the total employees involved in such disputes during the preceding year.

Agreements.—Negotiating an agreement is a most important task confronting a labor organization after it has established its right to represent a given class or craft of employees. Table 4 indicates the number of agreements filed with the Board up to June 30, 1937, according to the classes of carriers and types of labor organizations. National labor organizations gained 391 agreements during the year, while system associations lost 54, and local unions lost 1. National organizations on July 1, 1937, had nearly 82 percent of the total agreements.

TABLE 4.—*Agreements on File with National Mediation Board July 1, 1935, 1936, and 1937, by Classes of Carriers and Types of Labor Organizations*

Class of carrier	Number of agreements											
	Total			National labor organizations			System associations			Local unions		
	1935	1936	1937	1935	1936	1937	1935	1936	1937	1935	1936	1937
Class I (147 carriers)	2,335	2,448	2,638	1,652	1,864	2,184	602	487	418	81	97	96
Class II (214 carriers)	329	451	471	265	370	389	64	81	81	0	0	1
Class III (280 carriers)	18	98	98	6	83	83	12	14	14	0	1	1
Switching and terminal companies (213 carriers)	334	464	501	294	384	414	40	65	74	0	15	13
Electric	0	19	47	0	15	36	0	4	10	0	0	1
Express and Pullman companies (3 carriers)	5	5	6	5	5	6	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	3,012	3,485	3,761	2,222	2,721	3,112	718	651	597	81	113	112

Emergencies and Strikes.—If the Board is unable to obtain settlement of a dispute which threatens to interrupt interstate commerce, the Board notifies the President, who may in his discretion create a special board to investigate and report to him within 30 days. The act specifies that during these 30 days there shall be no change, except by agreement, made by either party to the dispute, in the conditions out of which the dispute arose. During the year ending June 30, 1937, the President appointed three such emergency boards. In all three cases the dispute was settled without interruption of transportation service. One case involved nonpayment by the carrier of penalties and lost wages required to be paid by decisions of the National Railroad Adjustment Board; the second dispute was largely the result of differences among the labor organizations; and the third was primarily a jurisdictional dispute.

Two railroad strikes and two minor stoppages took place during the course of the year. One of the strikes and one of the minor stoppages were due to the inability of the Board to send, soon enough, a mediator to Alaska where the disputes occurred. The most serious strike occurred among the train and engine service employees on the Louisiana & Arkansas Railway system. It grew out of the failure of management to give sympathetic consideration to the recommendations of the emergency boards set up by the President in prior crises; to apply awards of the National Railroad Adjustment Board; and to confer jointly with the duly accredited employee representatives. The strike, which continued for 9 weeks, was settled with the assistance of the Governor of Louisiana.

The National Railroad Adjustment Board

The National Railroad Adjustment Board is the tribunal to which railroads and their employees can refer for final adjudication of dis-

putes growing out of specific claims or grievances, or out of the interpretation and application of the terms of established labor agreements. This Board does not participate in the process of establishing labor standards on the railroads, but confines its activities strictly to the adjustment of differences that may arise from time to time as to how such labor standards are or should be applied in accordance with provisions of existing agreements. During the year ending June 30, 1937, the Adjustment Board disposed of 1,443 cases.

Air Transport Industry

The commercial air lines and their employees were made subject to the provisions of the Railway Labor Act in 1936. During that year, four collective agreements were negotiated and filed with the Board. They cover air-line mechanics and radio operators on two air lines. Despite their relatively extensive organization, air-line pilots have not yet entered into agreements with the air carriers further defining their standards of employment. No disputes over representation arose during the year among air-line employees.

RIGHT OF LABOR RELATIONS BOARD TO CONDUCT HEARINGS

THE United States Supreme Court, on January 31, 1938, in two unanimous decisions held that a Federal district court could not enjoin the National Labor Relations Board from holding hearings on charges of unfair labor practices brought against an employer. The cases [1] related to controversies at the plants of the Bethlehem Shipbuilding Corporation, Ltd., Quincy, Mass., and the Newport News (Va.) Shipbuilding and Dry Dock Co. Mr. Justice Brandeis delivered the opinion of the court in both cases.

The main question for determination in these cases was whether a Federal district court has jurisdiction to prevent the National Labor Relations Board from holding a hearing, upon a complaint filed against an employer alleged to be engaged in unfair labor practices prohibited by the National Labor Relations Act. The Circuit Court of Appeals for the First Circuit held that the District Court did have jurisdiction. Mr. Justice Brandeis, in the exordium of his opinion, outlined the purposes of the Labor Relations Act and presented the procedure that is followed whenever a complaint is filed.

In the Bethlehem case it was alleged by the Industrial Union of Marine and Shipbuilding Workers of America, Local No. 5, that the

[1] *Myers* v. *Bethlehem Shipbuilding Corp., Ltd.*; *Myers* v. *MacKenzie* (58 Sup. Ct. 459). *Newport News Shipbuilding and Dry Dock Co.* v. *Schauffler* (58 Sup. Ct. 466).

corporation was engaging in unfair labor practices at its plant in Quincy, Mass. The Labor Relations Board filed a complaint alleging, among other things, that the company had dominated and interfered with a labor organization within its plant known as "Plan of Representation of Employees." Specifically the complaint alleged that:

> The respondent in the course and conduct of its business causes and has continuously caused large quantities of the raw materials used in the production of its boats, ships, and marine equipment to be purchased and transported in interstate commerce from and through States of the United States other than the State of Massachusetts to the Fore River Plant in the State of Massachusetts and causes and has continuously caused the boats, ships, and marine equipment produced by it to be sold and transported in interstate commerce from the Fore River Plant in the State of Massachusetts to, into, and through States of the United States other than the State of Massachusetts, all of the aforesaid constituting a continuous flow of trade, traffic and commerce among the several States.

The shipbuilding concern maintained that the business did not enter into interstate commerce and therefore the Labor Relations Board was deprived of a right to conduct an investigation.

The Board notified the corporation that a hearing would be held on the complaint on a certain day and at a certain place, at which time the corporation might appear and give testimony. On the day set for the hearing the corporation filed a bill in equity in the Federal Court for the District of Massachusetts, against certain officials of the Labor Relations Board, to enjoin them from holding the hearing. Within 2 weeks another bill was filed by certain employees of the corporation, officers of the so-called Plan of Representation at the Quincy plants, seeking substantially the same relief as the corporation. The district court in each instance issued an injunction and decree, which was later affirmed by the Circuit Court of Appeals. Petitions and motions for rehearing were subsequently denied by the lower Federal courts. Because of the importance of the questions presented in this case, and the conflict in the lower courts, as well as an alleged conflict with former decisions of the United States Supreme Court, the high tribunal of the Nation granted a review of the case.

Mr. Justice Brandeis declared, in the opinion, that the district court was without power to enjoin the Board from holding the hearings, and proceeded to present the reasons therefor. The district court, he said, has no authority to enjoin hearings, because Congress has declared that the power to prevent any person from engaging in any unfair practice affecting commerce shall be vested in the Board and the Circuit Court of Appeals.

> The grant of that exclusive power is constitutional, because the act provided for appropriate procedure before the Board and in the review by the Circuit Court of Appeals an adequate opportunity to secure judicial protection against possible illegal action on the part of the Board. No power to enforce an order is conferred upon a board. To secure enforcement, the Board must apply to a

Circuit Court of Appeals for its affirmance. And until the Board's order has been affirmed by the appropriate Circuit Court of Appeals, no penalty accrues for disobeying it. The independent right to apply to a Circuit Court of Appeals to have an order set aside is conferred upon any party aggrieved by the proceeding before the Board. The Board is even without power to enforce obedience to its subpoena to testify or to produce written evidence. To enforce obedience it must apply to a district court; and to such an application appropriate defense may be made.

The court pointed out that it had been decided that the procedural provisions of the National Labor Relations Act did not offend against the legal requirements governing the creation and action of administrative bodies,[2] and, continuing, said that:

The act establishes standards to which the Board must conform. There must be complaint, notice, and hearing. The Board must receive evidence and make findings. The findings as to the facts are to be conclusive, but only if supported by evidence. The order of the Board is subject to review by the designated court, and only when sustained by the court may the order be enforced. Upon that review all questions of the jurisdiction of the Board and the regularity of its proceedings, all questions of constitutional right or statutory authority, are open to examination by the court. We construe the procedural provisions as affording adequate opportunity to secure judicial protection against arbitrary action in accordance with the well-settled rules applicable to administrative agencies set up by Congress to aid in the enforcement of valid legislation.

Mr. Justice Brandeis observed, however, that the Board has jurisdiction only if the complaint relates to interstate or foreign commerce. In expanding this point the justice said:

Unless the Board finds that it does, the complaint must be dismissed. And if it finds that interstate or foreign commerce is involved, but the Circuit Court of Appeals concludes that such finding was without adequate evidence to support it, or otherwise contrary to law, the Board's petition to enforce it will be dismissed, or the employer's petition to have it set aside will be granted. Since the procedure before the Board is appropriate and the judicial review so provided is adequate, Congress had power to vest exclusive jurisdiction in the Board and the Circuit Court of Appeals.

Commenting on the failure of the Circuit Court of Appeals to reverse the action of the lower Federal court, Mr. Brandeis remarked:

The Circuit Court of Appeals should have reversed the decrees for a preliminary injunction. It is true that ordinarily the decree of a district court granting or denying a preliminary injunction will not be disturbed on appeal. But that rule of practice has no application where, as here, there was an insuperable objection to the maintenance of the suit in point of jurisdiction and where it clearly appears that the decree was the result of an improvident exercise of judicial discretion.

In regard to the petition of certain employees of the company, the Court pointed out that the additional allegations furnish no reason

[2] *National Labor Relations Board* v. *Jones & Laughlin Steel Corp.*, 301 U. S. 1. (See Monthly Labor Review for May 1937, p. 1192.)

why "the Board should be prevented from exercising the exclusive initial jurisdiction conferred upon it by Congress."

In the case of the Newport News Shipbuilding and Dry Dock Co., as in the Bethlehem case, the Labor Relations Board sought to conduct hearings on charges of unfair labor practices. In the former case the Federal District Court refused an injunction, which was sustained in the Court of Appeals. In the Newport News Shipbuilding Case, Mr. Justice Brandeis delivered the opinion of the Court also, but for the most part reiterated his views as presented in the Bethlehem case. Both cases are of vital importance to the National Labor Relations Board, to employees, and to employers. The decisions uphold the Board and recognize that it has authority to conduct hearings in the first instance on charges of unfair labor practices against an employer.

Mr. Justice Cardozo, who was ill at the time of the hearing of these cases, took no part in the consideration or decision.

COLLECTIVE AGREEMENT IN BRITISH CHAIN GROCERY STORES[1]

A COLLECTIVE agreement covering 95,000 employees of chain grocery stores, and said to be the most extensive ever reached in the distributive trades in Great Britain, was signed on November 22, 1937, by the National Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants, Warehousemen, and Clerks, and the United Kingdom Association of Multiple Shop Proprietors. Together with other agreements previously negotiated, affecting employees in food departments of department stores in seven of the principal cities, the new contract brings the number of persons now under collective agreements in the grocery and provision trade to 100,000.

An immediate increase of 3s. a week, affecting a large proportion of the employees, is called for, and a minimum-wage scale is to be adopted and put into effect by the middle of March 1938.

The total number of agreements secured by the store employees' organization in Great Britain in the past 18 months is now nearly 50, affecting 153,500 employees. Early in 1937 an agreement was signed covering 10,000 employees of a firm operating six large department stores.[2] At that time the representative of the Ministry of Labor who participated in the negotiations called attention to the fact that notwithstanding the large number of distributive workers in Great Britain, lack of collective-bargaining machinery had left their wages and working conditions dependent upon statutory regulation. He ex-

[1] Based on report from Alfred Nutting, clerk, American Consulate General, London, dated Oct. 27, 1937; and Manchester Guardian, Nov. 23, 1937.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, April 1937 (p. 932).

pressed the hope that joint negotiation would develop in the distributive trades as it had in the productive industries.

Commenting on the chain-store agreement, this official of the Ministry of Labor, who participated in the latter negotiations also, expressed a belief that its coverage was such as to make it "impossible now for the rates set out in this agreement to be ignored by other employers," and that employers not parties to the agreement would accept its terms. However, one clause of the agreement recorded the view of both parties that "in the present status of organization" in the distribution field, voluntary agreements required the support of statutory action to make wage regulation generally effective. Accordingly both parties urged the Minister of Labor "to take the earliest possible steps to obtain this objective."

COLLECTIVE AGREEMENT IN NEWSPAPER PRINTING IN SWEDEN

ON DECEMBER 1, 1937, according to the organ of the Swedish Federation of Labor,[1] the Typographical Union and the publishers' association, representing 140 firms publishing 207 newspapers in Sweden, concluded a trade-union agreement which is effective for 9 years or up to June 30, 1946. During the continuance of the agreement, strikes, lock-outs, or any other hostile acts are not to be undertaken by either party to agreement. Forcible coercion is to be replaced by peaceful negotiations and, if these fail, by submission of the matter in dispute to the permanent arbitration court, whose decisions are final and binding on both parties.

The permanent arbitration court is to be composed of three members, who are to be appointed by agreement of the organizations of employers and workers but who may not be members of either organization. The matters subject to negotiation and, if need be, to court procedure are wages, trade changes, conditions of work—anything concerning the trade and the relations between the workers and their employers. The agreement also provides for an increase of wages. This increase varies and is made dependent upon changes in the industry. It is stated that this agreement for the typographical trade provides for the settlement, not only of disputes regarding the interpretation of the terms agreed upon, but also of disputes that may arise concerning wages and other material points.

[1] Fackföreningsrörelsen, Organ för Landsorganisationen i Sverge, No. 49, Stockholm, 1937, p. 529.

Housing

FEDERAL HOUSING LEGISLATION OF 1938

THE amendment to the National Housing Act of 1934 (Public, No. 424), approved by the President, February 3, 1938, liberalizes the mortgage and insurance provisions of the original act and guarantees the payment of from 80 to 90 percent of the amount loaned by banks or other finance companies.[1]

It is the purpose of the law to encourage residential building by reducing the initial payment and lowering the interest rate on loans. A vast new market for small homes will be opened, since prospective home owners can purchase with a down payment even as low as $500 on a $5,000 house, $600 on a $6,000 house, and a slightly higher payment on higher priced houses. The balance of the cost price will be taken care of by insured loans. Previously, the minimum payment on a $5,000 dwelling was $1,000.

The Federal Housing Administrator is authorized to insure banks and other financial organizations against losses which they may sustain as a result of loans for the purpose of financing modernization and repair of houses by the owners or lessees. No loan exceeding $10,000 may be made for this purpose, and the total amount loaned may not exceed $100,000,000. The Government guarantees such loans up to 10 percent of the total amount loaned by any one institution for such purposes. By this provision the act is expected to stimulate the remodeling of many older houses.

The Administrator is authorized to insure mortgages up to 90 percent of the value on homes costing $6,000 or less. For homes costing more than $6,000 but less than $10,000, loans in the amount of 90 percent of the appraised value of the first $6,000 and 80 percent of the balance may be allowed. The act forbids any loan being made for more than $16,000. The new act provides that loans may be made on homes not yet constructed. The loans must have a maturity date satisfactory to the Administrator, but not to exceed 20 years from the date of the insurance of the mortgage. However, until July 1, 1939, a mortgage not to exceed $5,400 may mature in 25 years.

The loans under the amendatory legislation are to bear interest at the rate of 5 percent per annum, but the Administrator is authorized to fix the rate at 6 percent if he finds that in certain areas or under

[1] For summary of the original act, see Monthly Labor Review for August 1934 (p. 369).

special circumstances the mortgage market demands otherwise. The former mortgage insurance premium of one-half of 1 percent is reduced to one-fourth of 1 percent on homes costing $6,000 or less, and for those costing more, one-half of 1 percent is to be charged. The aggregate amount of principal obligations of all insured mortgages may not exceed $2,000,000,000; however, the President may approve an increase to $3,000,000,000. After July 1, 1939, no mortgages may be insured except mortgages (1) that cover property which is approved for mortgage insurance prior to the completion of the construction of such property, or (2) on property the construction of which was commenced after January 1, 1937, and completed prior to July 1, 1939, or (3) on property which has been previously covered by a mortgage insured by the Administrator.

The new act also permits insurance of loans up to $2,500 for the erection of new houses on farms, in rural areas, or in the marginal zones surrounding the large cities where the standards established by the mutual mortgage system set up by the original act do not apply. Insured loans made for small dwellings must be secured by mortgages or deeds of trust, and the houses must be built to conform to construction requirements deemed necessary to protect the owner's investment.

The amended act also provides for rental housing insurance on loans to be made to Federal or State agencies and private corporations, associations, cooperative societies, and trusts formed or created for the purpose of rehabilitating slums or blighted areas. Such agencies, pending the termination of all obligations of the Administrator under this insurance plan, will be regulated or restricted by the Administrator as to rents or sales and methods of operation, in order to provide reasonable rentals to tenants and to permit a reasonable return on the investment. To be eligible for this type of insurance, a mortgage on any property or project must involve a principal obligation not exceeding $5,000,000. The loan must not exceed 80 percent of the amount which the Administrator estimates will be the value of the property or project when the proposed improvements are completed and not exceed $1,350 per room.

In addition to the insurance of mortgages on homes and large-scale projects, the Administrator is authorized to insure mortgages covering one or more multifamily dwellings, or a group of not less than 10 single-family dwellings. The loan must be in excess of $16,000, but not more than $200,000, and not in excess of 80 percent of the amount which the Administrator estimates will be the value of the property when the proposed improvements are completed. The cost of each room in this type of house may not exceed $1,150 per room. The maturity date of the loan must not exceed 21 years and must be satisfactory to the Administrator. The mortgage must also contain

amortization provisions. The interest rate may not exceed 5 percent.

National mortgage associations which were authorized to be established under the original act were given added powers by the amendatory legislation. Each association is now empowered to make real-estate loans which are insured under title II of the act, but it may not make loans on individually owned homes. These associations may also purchase, service, or sell certain uninsured mortgages, as well as mortgages which are insured.

In order to finance such transactions, the associations may issue notes, bonds, debentures, or other obligations up to 20 times the amount of their paid-up capital stock and surplus. These debentures will be guaranteed as to both principal and interest by the United States. The sale of these debentures will tend to make the mortgage market liquid and such an arrangement is expected to foster large-scale apartment construction.

HOUSING NEEDS IN THE UNITED STATES

TWO MILLION additional dwelling units would be required to bring housing standards to those existing in 1930, the National Housing Committee concluded in a recent report.[1] The need for new units is concentrated among those families paying $30 or less per month for rent or rent equivalent. On an average, 175,875 dwellings were built per year from 1930 to 1937 and of this number 51 percent were available only to those who could pay rents of $50 or over per month. From 1933 to 1935 the number of families receiving $3,000 per year did not increase in proportion to the rise in national income. Since that time the number of families paying rent of $50 or more per month has decreased in spite of an increase in the number having an annual income of $3,000 or more. The Committee interprets this as "indicating a positive resistance in the upper income groups to paying the 1929 proportion of income for rent or rent equivalent." In 1937 only one-third as many persons were paying rents of $50 and over as paid such sums in 1930. From the facts brought together the authors of the report further conclude that, taking into account the housing needs created by increases in the number of families and the shortages due to demolition and obsolescence, there will be needed in 1938 and 1939 approximately 485,000 units per year, of which 66 percent (321,000) will be for those paying $30 or less per month rent, 24 percent (114,000) for those paying $30 to $50, and only 10 percent (50,000 per year) for those paying $50 or over. This would still leave the shortage of 2,000,000 units already mentioned. If this shortage were made up in 1938–39 and added to the 485,000 houses needed

[1] National Housing Committee. The Housing Market. Washington, 1937.

to provide for new families and compensate for demolitions and properties becoming uninhabitable, the annual market is placed at 1,500,000 units, of which only 11 percent, or 165,000 dwellings, would be available for rent or ownership at $30 or more per month. Thus 89 percent of the new buildings would be in the rent classes below $30 per month.

National income and rents.—Statistics showing the distribution of national income by income classes were brought together in order to show the rent-paying capacity of families. The figures in table 1 are for 1929, 1933, and 1935.

TABLE 1.—*Family Income Distribution, 1929, 1933, and 1935* [1]

Income group	Percent of total			Percent of change, 1933 to 1935
	1929	1933	1935	
Up to $499	3.0	24.6	20.6	−16.2
$500 to $999	9.6	25.4	15.9	−37.4
$1,000 to $1,499	21.9	19.2	22.7	+18.2
$1,500 to $1,999	18.9	13.7	17.4	+27.0
$2,000 to $2,499	12.7	6.4	9.2	+43.8
$2,500 to $2,999	9.5	4.3	6.2	+44.2
$3,000 and over	24.4	6.4	8.0	+25.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	
National income (in billions of dollars)	83.6	39.2	53.1	+35.5

[1] 1929 estimates are from Brookings Institution, America's Capacity to Consume, 1934; those for 1933 from Department of Commerce (C. W. A. Project), Financial Survey of Urban Housing, preliminary releases 1934; and for 1935 from Bureau of Labor Statistics (W. P. A. Project), Urban Study of Consumer Purchases, published in part in 1937.

Special significance is attached to the increase in the proportion of families in the lowest-income group since 1929 and the failure of the group with incomes of $3,000 and over to increase in proportion to the national income between 1933 and 1935. The greatest gains between these 2 years were in the incomes of $1,000 to $3,000 and the indications are that incomes in excess of $3,000 will not increase to such an extent as to create an effective demand for a large volume of higher-priced buildings.

Available statistics of rents also show that families paying the higher rents tend to increase more slowly than families paying low rents. Thus, the group paying under $30 per month in 1930 represented 42.9 percent of the families and in 1937 had increased to 63 percent.

In 1933 a survey made by the Department of Commerce revealed that in 61 cities 23.7 percent of the average family income was expended for rent. This proportion was larger than in 1929 when incomes were higher. Families with the lowest incomes tended to pay a larger percentage of their income for rent than did those with more adequate means.

Since those paying the higher rents, $50 and over per month, have not increased as rapidly as the proportion of incomes of $3,000 and

over, the Committee concludes, in the report under review, that it has not been necessary to increase rents to the same proportions as existed in 1929 and that a market study based on rent groups is preferable to one based on distribution of income.

ALLEY CLEARANCE IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, 1937

ELEVEN of the 176 squares containing inhabited alleys in Washington had been reclaimed by the Alley Dwelling Authority for the District of Columbia when its annual report for the year ending June 30, 1937, was issued.[1] The Authority, which was set up by an act of Congress on June 12, 1934, is an independent Federal agency working with public funds In the 2½ years of operation a varied program of slum clearance and reclamation has been developed; the act creating the Authority has been upheld in two condemnation suits; and the practicability of the plan has been demonstrated.

Projects provided are designed to accord with the neighborhood where they are placed. The Authority has made every effort to avoid shoddy construction and land overcrowding, while at the same time keeping prices down. Economy has been of special importance, as no subsidy is afforded for the buildings erected and they must rent at prices within the reach of low-income families.

The Authority has not only erected dwellings which it rents and manages itself, such as the 23 single-family houses, known as Hopkins Place,[2] but has demonstrated the feasibility of cooperating with quasi-public agencies and private individuals in eliminating inhabited alleys. Having acquired certain sites and cleared them, some property has been sold to nongovernmental groups, thus bringing private finance into the work of slum reclamation and freeing Federal funds for further operations. The Authority seeks to widen private building activity rather than to encroach upon it.

Work was started with a $500,000 fund at a time when there was a housing shortage in Washington. The Authority's immediate concern was therefore rehousing, and the funds were divided among projects that would show immediate returns. The report here reviewed states that having reclaimed 11 squares containing 13 inhabited alleys, the values created are "at least equal in dollars to the amount of all funds made available." In order to maintain the program on a sound financial basis, constant checking on costs is required. This entails

[1] Alley Dwelling Authority for the District of Columbia. Report for the fiscal year July 1, 1936–June 30, 1937. Washington, 1937.

[2] For a description of this development see the Monthly Labor Review for March 1937 (p. 550).

careful study before any land is acquired, review of plans for construction, and careful consideration of bids for building. Contracts are let to the lowest responsible bidders. While overhead is kept within the lowest possible limits, operations are not yet on a sufficiently large scale for current receipts to carry the necessary overhead.

At the beginning of the fiscal year the financial resources amounted to $316,381. This sum had been increased to $352,841 by the end of the year, owing to an additional allocation by the President, sales of sites, rents from completed projects, revenues from demolitions, etc.

Constant study and resurvey of alleys has been carried on, and only such land as could be advantageously assembled for clearance has been purchased. While the law permits acquisition of land at 130 percent of the assessed value, the Authority has actually obtained it at an average of 112.8 percent thereof. The lowest percentage was 61.39; in condemnation suits the price has ranged from 85.19 to 124.15 percent of the assessed value.

Buildings erected provide for ample light and air, sanitation, and adequate space. Although housing developments are in closely built sections of the city, lot coverage has been kept far below legal requirements. Rooms are of generous size and modern equipment has been installed, not only because this is believed to be socially desirable but also as a sound investment. The Authority found that buildings over two stories high cost more per cubic foot and per room than low buildings. This discovery in providing one project led to two-story construction on the next two apartments erected.

The Authority regards housing needs as involving more than ridding Washington of inhabited alleys and looks to other agencies to play an important part in improving living conditions. Insofar as its powers permit, however, the Authority is prepared to provide low-cost housing instead of putting cleared land to other productive uses, as the enabling legislation permits.

The accomplishments up to June 30, 1937, are listed by the Authority as follows:

During the past fiscal year the Authority has demolished 77 houses and has completed:

Hopkins Place SE., low-renting housing for Negroes.
W Street Apartments NW., low-rent housing for Negroes (occupied July 15, 1937).

It has let contracts for, and work is now in process on—

K Street project SW., low-rent housing for white families.
St. Mary's Court NW., low-rent apartment house for Negroes.

It has acquired the property necessary for reclamation in—

Odd Fellows Court SE.

It has sold its acquisitions in—

Bissels Court NW. to the George Washington University.
Valley Street NW., to a private developer (part of acquisition still retained).

At the beginning of the fiscal year, July 1, 1936, the Authority had five completed projects:

Rupperts Court SE., automobile repair shop.
Browns Court SE., storage garages.
Douglas Court NE., storage garages.
Stanton Court NW., storage garages.
O'Brien Court NW., automobile parking lot.

It has begun acquisitions in three other squares. For one of these it has made plans that include group one-family houses and an apartment house. For another it proposes one-family houses.

Some 20 additional squares are now being studied to determine the best form of redevelopment, and to estimate the probable costs of acquisition and development. The speed with which this work will be carried forward depends chiefly upon the capital available, though, if condemnation suits are necessary, there will be delays due to court proceedings.

Industrial Disputes

TREND OF STRIKES

THE number of strikes beginning in January and the number of workers who went out on strike during the month were greater than in December although considerably smaller than any other month of 1937. As compared with December, the figures for January show increases of 10 percent in number of strikes, and 19 percent in number of workers involved, but a decrease of 31 percent in man-days of idleness. The decrease in man-days idle was due principally to a smaller carry-over of workers who had begun their strikes in previous months.

Trend of Strikes, 1933 to January 1938 [1]

Year and month	Number of strikes					Workers involved in strikes		Man-days idle during month or year
	Continued from preceding month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ended in month	In effect at end of month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	
1933	----------	1,695	----------	----------	----------	1,168,272	----------	16,872,128
1934	----------	1,856	----------	----------	----------	1,466,695	----------	19,591,949
1935	----------	2,014	----------	----------	----------	1,117,213	----------	15,456,337
1936	----------	2,172	----------	----------	----------	788,648	----------	13,901,956
1936								
January	84	167	251	149	102	32,406	59,153	635,519
February	102	148	250	131	119	63,056	89,735	748,491
March	119	185	304	174	130	75,191	122,162	1,331,162
April	130	183	313	179	134	65,379	95,526	699,900
May	134	206	340	219	121	72,824	123,030	1,019,171
June	121	188	309	158	151	63,429	133,531	1,327,678
July	151	173	324	197	127	38,017	125,281	1,105,480
August	127	228	355	210	145	68,752	118,268	911,216
September	145	234	379	236	143	65,994	130,875	1,063,100
October	143	192	335	219	116	100,845	148,570	1,053,878
November	116	136	252	126	126	70,116	157,007	1,940,628
December	126	132	258	158	100	72,639	184,859	2,065,733
1937								
January	100	171	271	132	139	108,641	214,288	2,720,441
February	139	210	349	203	146	112,215	239,229	1,520,810
March	146	609	755	507	248	289,813	357,664	3,290,230
April	248	527	775	508	267	220,495	392,435	3,367,630
May	267	598	865	538	327	322,878	441,277	2,955,851
June	327	595	922	573	349	280,093	474,184	4,986,126
July	349	452	801	516	285	142,594	353,782	3,024,556
August	285	430	715	435	280	138,561	235,121	2,238,850
September	280	343	623	378	245	84,245	155,082	1,407,536
October	245	292	537	357	180	62,704	118,061	1,146,156
November	180	232	412	241	171	66,168	110,822	897,739
December [1]	171	150	321	191	130	27,000	57,000	660,000
1938								
January [1]	130	165	295	175	120	32,000	50,000	455,000

[1] Strikes involving fewer than 6 workers or lasting less than 1 day are not included in this table nor in the following tables. Notices or leads regarding strikes are obtained by the Bureau from more than 650 daily papers, labor papers, and trade journals, as well as from all Government labor boards. Letters are written to representatives of parties in the disputes asking for detailed and authentic information. Since answers to some of these letters have not yet been received, the figures given for the late months are not final. This is particularly true with regard to figures for the last 2 months, and these should be considered as preliminary estimates.

As compared with January a year ago, there were about the same number of strikes, but less than one-third as many workers involved and only about one-sixth as many man-days of idleness. It will be recalled that in January 1937 the strike against the General Motors Corporation and maritime strikes on both coasts were in progress.

The preliminary figures for December and January are necessarily subject to revision as later information is received. An analysis of strikes in each of these months, based on detailed and verified information will appear in subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review.

ANALYSIS OF STRIKES IN NOVEMBER 1937 [1]

THE BUREAU has obtained detailed information on 232 strikes, which began in November 1937, involving more than 66,000 workers. The following analysis is based on these strikes plus 180 which continued into November from preceding months, making a total of 412 strikes in progress, involving nearly 111,000 workers, and resulting in almost 900,000 man-days of idleness during the month.

There were more new strikes (44) in retail and wholesale trade than in any other industry group during November. Other groups with a comparatively large number of strikes were transportation and communication (24), textiles (24), food industries (21), and domestic and personal service (17). The strikes in these five industry groups accounted for 56 percent of the total new strikes in November. The most man-days of idleness were in (1) the domestic and personal service industries—mainly due to the strike of laundry workers in Cincinnati, Ohio, and northern Kentucky; (2) the lumber industries—due principally to disputes in sawmills and logging camps in Oregon and Minnesota; (3) the automobile industry—due to strikes in Detroit and Pontiac, Mich.; and (4) the textile industries where 58 strikes in the fabric and clothing industries were in progress during the month.

More than one-fourth (64) of the new strikes in the United States during November were in the State of New York. Another fourth of the strikes were in Pennsylvania (28), New Jersey (17), and California (13). Of the 66,168 workers involved in the strikes beginning in November, 34 percent were in Michigan strikes and 21 percent in Ohio. A short strike at the Hudson Motor Car Co. in Detroit, and another at the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Co. in Akron, accounted to a considerable extent for the large number of workers involved in these two States. The most man-days of idleness because of strikes in November were in New York (119,853), Minnesota (97,032), Pennsylvania (62,609), Michigan (59,832), and Oregon (55,935). The high figure for Minnesota is accounted for partially by the strike of timber workers in the northern part of the State, which began

[1] Detailed information on a few strikes has not yet been received. (See footnote to preceding table.) Data on missing strikes will be included in the annual report.

about the middle of October and continued until the latter part of November. In Michigan there were two strikes during the month at the Fisher Body plant in Pontiac, in addition to the Hudson strike, which contributed substantially to the number of man-days idle. In Oregon there was the dispute which had kept Portland's lumber mills closed since August. (See table 2.)

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in November 1937, by Industry*

Industry	Beginning in November		In progress during November		Man-days idle during November
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All industries	**232**	**66,168**	**412**	**110,822**	**897,739**
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	**4**	**389**	**12**	**1,996**	**28,943**
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills			1	311	5,287
Cast-iron pipe and fittings			2	518	4,758
Hardware			2	308	6,468
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings			1	250	6,250
Stoves			1	190	2,280
Structural and ornamental metal work	2	194	3	244	2,302
Tin cans and other tinware	1	142	1	142	1,136
Other	1	33	1	33	462
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	**5**	**911**	**13**	**2,055**	**26,352**
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	2	232	5	633	7,694
Foundry and machine-shop products	2	662	3	680	5,408
Radios and phonographs	1	17	2	557	9,265
Other			3	185	3,985
Transportation equipment	**10**	**23,510**	**12**	**25,599**	**101,454**
Automobiles, bodies and parts	9	23,337	11	25,426	100,070
Shipbuilding	1	173	1	173	1,384
Railroad repair shops			1	110	770
Electric railroad			1	110	770
Nonferrous metals and their products	**2**	**120**	**6**	**456**	**4,408**
Brass, bronze, and copper products	1	40	2	172	2,248
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices			1	25	225
Lighting equipment			1	74	740
Silverware and plated ware			1	105	315
Stamped and enameled ware	1	80	1	80	880
Lumber and allied products	**11**	**1,699**	**26**	**8,727**	**144,651**
Furniture	7	1,294	11	1,578	17,107
Millwork and planing	1	55	1	55	605
Sawmills and logging camps	2	250	6	6,530	119,270
Other	1	100	8	564	7,669
Stone, clay, and glass products	**6**	**516**	**11**	**1,209**	**18,564**
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	1	67	2	217	4,822
Cement			2	349	8,725
Glass	3	146	4	177	1,790
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	1	175	1	175	1,400
Pottery	1	128	1	128	1,664
Other			1	163	163
Textiles and their products	**24**	**3,123**	**58**	**10,062**	**100,932**
Fabrics:					
Carpets and rugs	1	149	1	149	1,490
Cotton goods	2	798	6	2,013	16,191
Dyeing and finishing textiles			2	159	3,819
Silk and rayon goods	2	132	4	472	5,387
Woolen and worsted goods	1	500	2	747	5,687
Other	3	52	6	196	2,099
Wearing apparel:					
Clothing, men's	2	17	2	17	34
Clothing, women's	5	200	15	1,405	27,250
Corsets and allied garments	1	11	1	11	110
Men's furnishings			1	55	275
Hats, caps, and millinery	2	617	4	2,735	3,405
Shirts and collars			1	190	2,660
Hosiery	1	300	3	782	11,057
Knit goods	1	6	5	143	1,640
Other	3	341	5	988	19,828

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in November 1937, by Industry*—Continued

Industry	Beginning in November		In progress during November		Man-days idle during November
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
Leather and its manufactures	**3**	**219**	**8**	**1,277**	**15,043**
Boots and shoes	1	117	3	378	1,677
Leather			2	505	11,805
Other leather goods	2	102	3	394	1,561
Food and kindred products	**21**	**1,740**	**30**	**2,746**	**32,871**
Baking	7	181	12	728	13,998
Beverages	4	264	4	264	2,954
Canning and preserving	3	110	5	457	9,387
Confectionery	1	100	2	122	988
Flour and grain mills			1	90	2,250
Slaughtering and meat packing	5	885	5	885	2,694
Other	1	200	1	200	600
Tobacco manufactures			**1**	**640**	**10,880**
Cigars			1	640	10,880
Paper and printing	**12**	**1,243**	**17**	**2,327**	**31,613**
Boxes, paper	1	371	1	371	7,049
Paper and pulp	2	123	2	123	2,118
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job	4	155	6	638	11,123
Newspapers and periodicals	3	325	5	900	8,448
Other	2	269	3	295	2,875
Chemicals and allied products	**3**	**1,932**	**4**	**2,002**	**20,283**
Petroleum refining	2	1,232	2	1,232	11,813
Other	1	700	2	770	8,470
Rubber products	**2**	**13,650**	**3**	**13,740**	**28,230**
Rubber tires and inner tubes	1	13,500	1	13,500	27,000
Other rubber goods	1	150	2	240	1,230
Miscellaneous manufacturing	**15**	**825**	**26**	**1,979**	**16,728**
Electric light, power, and manufactured gas	1	20	2	78	1,718
Broom and brush	1	61	1	61	183
Furriers and fur factories	3	104	3	104	1,517
Other	10	640	20	1,736	13,310
Extraction of minerals	**5**	**1,757**	**8**	**2,279**	**16,118**
Coal mining, anthracite	2	967	2	967	1,141
Coal mining, bituminous	2	87	3	552	11,157
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining			1	21	252
Crude petroleum producing	1	703	2	739	3,568
Transportation and communication	**24**	**6,637**	**40**	**16,555**	**70,530**
Water transportation	13	4,425	17	13,033	44,226
Motortruck transportation	6	607	15	1,270	10,601
Motorbus transportation	2	1,376	3	1,388	7,772
Taxicabs and miscellaneous	2	80	4	715	7,782
Telephone and telegraph	1	149	1	149	149
Trade	**44**	**3,400**	**67**	**6,109**	**64,012**
Wholesale	10	507	14	1,252	21,418
Retail	34	2,893	53	4,857	42,594
Domestic and personal service	**17**	**1,898**	**35**	**7,575**	**150,510**
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses	8	991	17	2,331	44,004
Laundries	4	279	9	3,290	71,826
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing	3	360	5	1,599	31,605
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry)	2	268	4	355	3,075
Professional service	**6**	**933**	**6**	**933**	**1,133**
Recreation and amusement	5	921	5	921	977
Professional	1	12	1	12	156
Building and construction	**13**	**1,163**	**18**	**1,564**	**6,480**
Buildings, exclusive of P. W. A.	11	873	15	1,225	5,154
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and P. W. A. buildings)	2	290	3	339	1,326
Agriculture and fishing	**1**	**57**	**2**	**89**	**1,218**
Agriculture	1	57	2	89	1,218
Other nonmanufacturing industries	**4**	**466**	**8**	**793**	**6,016**

Of the 412 strikes in progress during November, 12 extended into 2 or more States. The largest of these was the strike of longshoremen on the South Atlantic Coast which began in October and was settled November 5.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in November 1937, by States*

State	Beginning in November		In progress during November		Man-days idle during November
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All States	232	66,168	412	110,822	897,739
Alabama	3	152	7	970	14,774
Arizona	1	20	1	20	40
California	13	2,168	27	4,227	42,545
Colorado	1	80	1	80	320
Connecticut	5	575	8	841	759
District of Columbia	5	472	8	660	4,331
Florida			2	135	1,791
Illinois	6	1,423	14	3,041	36,764
Indiana	7	497	13	2,561	43,265
Iowa	2	64	2	64	175
Kentucky	1	75	2	196	1,865
Louisiana	1	145	2	295	4,580
Maryland	3	425	6	768	9,449
Massachusetts	6	365	14	1,353	23,486
Michigan	9	22,580	10	22,616	59,832
Minnesota	2	216	6	4,519	97,032
Mississippi	1	61	1	61	1,159
Missouri	3	699	11	3,561	48,677
Montana	2	96	3	106	498
Nebraska	1	19	1	19	19
New Jersey	17	939	23	1,564	14,129
New York	64	3,765	114	8,907	119,853
North Carolina	2	1,037	5	1,788	4,963
North Dakota	1	23	3	232	648
Ohio	8	14,070	15	14,518	40,755
Oklahoma	2	797	4	1,453	11,760
Oregon	4	1,196	7	4,195	55,935
Pennsylvania	28	3,256	47	5,408	62,609
Rhode Island	2	512	2	512	584
South Carolina	1	175	1	175	1,400
South Dakota	1	87	1	87	1,044
Tennessee	6	1,041	9	1,606	15,062
Texas	6	1,337	8	1,737	21,237
Utah	1	10	1	10	30
Virginia	1	21	4	866	18,149
Washington	4	703	6	731	5,230
West Virginia	1	85	3	248	4,585
Wisconsin	4	607	8	1,240	18,414
Interstate	7	6,375	12	19,452	110,051

The average number of workers involved in the 232 strikes beginning in November was 285. About 65 percent of them involved fewer than 100 workers each and 31 percent involved from 100 to 1,000 each, leaving only 4 percent (9 strikes) in which 1,000 or more workers were involved. Seven of these 9 strikes involved from 1,000 to 5,000 workers each and the other 2 involved more than 10,000 workers each. These were the strikes at the Hudson Motor Car Co. and the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Co., referred to before. In table 3 the strikes in each industry group are classified according to the number of workers involved.

TABLE 3.—*Strikes Beginning in November 1937, Classified by Number of Workers Involved*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—						
		6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000	10,000 and over
All industries	232	62	89	58	14	7	------	2
Manufacturing								
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	4	------	2	2	------	------	------	------
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	5	1	1	2	1	------	------	------
Transportation equipment	10	------	------	3	2	4	------	1
Nonferrous metals and their products	2	------	2	------	------	------	------	------
Lumber and allied products	11	1	5	4	1	------	------	------
Stone, clay, and glass products	6	------	4	2	------	------	------	------
Textiles and their products	24	9	7	5	3	------	------	------
Leather and its manufactures	3	1	1	1	------	------	------	------
Food and kindred products	21	6	11	3	1	------	------	------
Paper and printing	12	4	5	3	------	------	------	------
Chemicals and allied products	3	------	------	1	1	1	------	------
Rubber products	2	------	------	1	------	------	------	1
Miscellaneous manufacturing	15	5	8	2	------	------	------	------
Nonmanufacturing								
Extraction of minerals	5	1	2	------	2	------	------	------
Transportation and communication	24	4	9	9	------	2	------	------
Trade	45	19	17	6	2	------	------	------
Domestic and personal service	17	4	5	7	1	------	------	------
Professional service	6	4	------	2	------	------	------	------
Building and construction	13	2	8	3	------	------	------	------
Agriculture and fishing	1	------	1	------	------	------	------	------
Other nonmanufacturing industries	4	1	1	2	------	------	------	------

Recognition or other union-organization matters were the major issues in 57 percent of the strikes beginning in November, and wages and hours were the major issues in 23 percent. About 31 percent of the workers were included in the first group and 14 percent in the latter. In about 20 percent of the strikes the major issues were miscellaneous matters, including sympathy, union rivalry, jurisdiction, and miscellaneous grievances not coming under the heading of wages and hours or union-organization matters. Nearly 56 percent of the total workers involved were in this miscellaneous group of strikes. This large proportion of workers was partially accounted for by the two largest strikes of the month which have been referred to previously, in which the disputes centered around an alleged increase of work load in one case and lay-offs without proper observance of seniority rights in the other. (See table 4.)

Nearly 60 percent of the 412 strikes in progress during November were terminated during the month with an average duration of 21 calendar days. About 32 percent of these strikes lasted less than a week, 44 percent from a week up to a month, 21 percent from 1 to 3 months, and 8 strikes had been in progress for 3 months or more. The strikes ending in November in each industry group are classified in table 5 according to duration.

TABLE 4.—*Major Issues Involved in Strikes Beginning in November 1937*

Major issues	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues	232	100.0	66,168	100.0
Wages and hours	54	23.3	9,015	13.6
Wage increase	31	13.4	6,732	10.1
Wage decrease	1	.4	700	1.1
Wage increase, hour decrease	20	8.6	1,377	2.1
Hour decrease	2	.9	206	.3
Union organization	132	56.9	20,286	30.7
Recognition	22	9.5	2,043	3.1
Recognition and wages	34	14.7	4,736	7.2
Recognition, wages, and hours	34	14.7	3,251	4.9
Closed shop	22	9.5	3,039	4.6
Discrimination	13	5.5	6,368	9.6
Other	7	3.0	849	1.3
Miscellaneous	46	19.8	36,867	55.7
Sympathy	2	.9	111	.2
Rival unions or factions	6	2.6	1,299	2.0
Jurisdiction	5	2.2	222	.3
Other	32	13.7	35,221	53.2
Not reported	1	.4	14	(1)

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

TABLE 5.—*Duration of Strikes Ending in November 1937*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes with duration of—					
		Less than 1 week	1 week and less than ½ month	½ and less than 1 month	1 and less than 2 months	2 and less than 3 months	3 months or more
All industries	241	77	61	45	38	12	8
Manufacturing							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	6	-------	2	2	1	1	-------
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	7	1	2	1	1	1	1
Transportation equipment	7	3	4	-------	-------	-------	-------
Railroad repair shops	1	-------	-------	-------	1	-------	-------
Nonferrous metals and their products	5	-------	-------	2	3	-------	-------
Lumber and allied products	12	1	4	2	3	1	1
Stone, clay, and glass products	5	-------	2	2	1	-------	-------
Textiles and their products	32	4	8	12	5	2	1
Leather and its manufactures	4	-------	2	-------	1	1	-------
Food and kindred products	18	7	8	2	-------	-------	1
Paper and printing	8	2	3	-------	2	-------	1
Rubber products	2	1	-------	-------	1	-------	-------
Miscellaneous manufactures	15	3	4	3	5	-------	-------
Nonmanufacturing							
Extraction of minerals	4	3	-------	-------	1	-------	-------
Transportation and communication	28	14	4	5	4	1	-------
Trade	41	18	10	5	4	3	1
Domestic and personal service	22	4	6	6	3	1	2
Professional service	5	5	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------
Building and construction	14	8	2	3	-------	1	-------
Agriculture and fishing	1	-------	-------	-------	1	-------	-------
Other nonmanufacturing industries	4	3	-------	-------	1	-------	-------

About 46 percent of the strikes ending in November, which included 49 percent of the total workers involved, were settled with the assist-

ance of Government conciliators or labor boards. The workers in most of these cases were represented by union officials. Forty percent of the strikes, including 48 percent of the workers involved, were settled through negotiations directly between the employers and representatives of organized workers. Twenty-six small strikes, as shown at the end of table 6, were terminated without formal settlements. In most of these cases the strikers returned to work without settlements of the issues involved or they lost their jobs entirely when employers discontinued business or hired new workers to fill the places of the striking employees.

TABLE 6.—*Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in November 1937*

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	241	100.0	75,701	100.0
Employers and workers directly	1	.4	90	.1
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly	96	39.8	36,267	48.0
Government conciliators or labor boards	110	45.7	37,092	49.0
Private conciliators or arbitrators	8	3.3	1,021	1.3
Terminated without formal settlement	26	10.8	1,231	1.6

Results of the strikes ending in November are indicated in tables 7 and 8, the latter showing results in relation to the major issues involved. About 43 percent of the strikes, including 35 percent of the workers, resulted in substantial gains to the workers; 37 percent of the strikes, including 61 percent of the workers, resulted in partial gains or compromises; and 16 percent of the strikes, including 3 percent of the workers, brought little or no gains to the workers.

The settlements reached in November indicate a greater degree of success, from the workers' standpoint, in the strikes over union-organization matters than in those primarily over wages and hours. Of the wage-and-hour strikes, the workers won 38 percent, compromised 47 percent, and lost 15 percent, as compared with 46, 37, and 16 percent, respectively, of the union-organization strikes. Of the workers involved in the wage-and-hour strikes 12 percent won their demands, 86 percent obtained compromises, and 2 percent gained little or nothing. In the union-organization strikes 31 percent of the workers won, 63 percent obtained compromises, and 6 percent gained little or nothing.

TABLE 7.—*Results of Strikes Ending in November 1937*

Results	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	241	100.0	75,701	100.0
Substantial gains to workers	103	42.8	26,359	34.8
Partial gains or compromises	90	37.3	45,953	60.7
Little or no gains to workers	39	16.2	2,445	3.2
Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	8	3.3	884	1.2
Not reported	1	.4	60	.1

TABLE 8.—*Results of Strikes Ending in November 1937 in Relation to Major Issues Involved*

Major issues	Total	Strikes resulting in—					
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	Indeterminate	Not reported
	Number of strikes						
All issues	241	103	90	39	8		1
Wages and hours	60	23	28	9			
Wage increase	33	11	17	5			
Wage decrease	1			1			
Wage increase, hour decrease	24	12	11	1			
Hour decrease	2			2			
Union organization	140	65	52	22			1
Recognition	22	11	6	5			
Recognition and wages	36	13	19	4			
Recognition and hours	2		1	1			
Recognition, wages, and hours	46	24	13	8			1
Closed shop	22	11	7	4			
Discrimination	8	3	5				
Other	4	3	1				
Miscellaneous	41	15	10	8	8		
Sympathy	3		1	2			
Rival unions or factions	4				4		
Jurisdiction	4				4		
Other	30	15	9	6			
	Number of workers involved						
All issues	75,701	26,359	45,953	2,445	884		60
Wages and hours	15,990	1,899	13,702	389			
Wage increase	6,256	1,244	4,845	167			
Wage decrease	54			54			
Wage increase, hour decrease	9,524	655	8,857	12			
Hour decrease	156			156			
Union organization	24,982	7,702	15,719	1,501			60
Recognition	1,261	777	233	251			
Recognition and wages	6,892	1,064	5,347	481			
Recognition and hours	206		175	31			
Recognition, wages, and hours	8,065	4,383	3,090	532			60
Closed shop	2,909	1,064	1,639	206			
Discrimination	5,370	325	5,045				
Other	279	89	190				
Miscellaneous	34,729	16,758	16,532	555	884		
Sympathy	119		90	29			
Rival unions or factions	702				702		
Jurisdiction	182				182		
Other	33,726	16,758	16,442	526			

CONCILIATION WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, JANUARY 1938

DURING January 1938 conciliators of the Department of Labor handled 111 disputes which involved directly and indirectly about 39,190 workers. This mediation service was requested by either one or both parties to the disputes. Some of these disputes had already developed into strikes before the Department of Labor was requested to intervene. In others, strikes were threatened but had not yet taken place. In some cases, although no strike was immediately threatened, a controversy between employer and workers had developed to such a stage that an outside mediator was deemed necessary.

TABLE 1.—*Disputes Handled by Conciliators, January 1938, by States*

State	Total disputes		Threatened strikes and controversies		Strikes	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
Alabama	3	325	2	(1)	1	325
California	6	[1] 824	2	630	4	[1] 194
District of Columbia	3	631	3	631		
Florida	1	2,400			1	2,400
Georgia	1	575	1	575		
Illinois	10	[1] 372	7	[1] 357	3	15
Indiana	7	[1] 721	6	[1] 486	1	235
Iowa	2	2,306	2	2,306		
Kentucky	2	171	1	116	1	55
Maryland	4	329	2	279	2	50
Massachusetts	3	590			3	590
Missouri	7	[1] 996	5	[1] 885	2	111
New Jersey	6	[1] 2,608	2	835	4	[1] 1,773
New York	11	[1] 1,785	5	[1] 640	6	1,145
North Carolina	4	2,585	2	1,385	2	1,200
Ohio	4	[1] 308	4	[1] 308		
Oregon	1	8,674			1	8,674
Pennsylvania	14	[1] 3,274	4	[1] 1,124	10	[1] 2,150
Rhode Island	1	146	1	146		
South Dakota	1	(1)	1	(1)		
Tennessee	4	1,707	4	1,707		
Texas	1	(1)	1	(1)		
Vermont	2	[1] 427	2	[1] 427		
Virginia	7	5,767	2	595	5	5,172
Washington	1	1,500			1	1,500
West Virginia	3	169	2	155	1	14
Wisconsin	2	(1)	2	(1)		
Total	111	[1] 39,190	63	[1] 13,587	48	[1] 25,603

[1] Exact number not known.

The Department of Labor conciliators were successful in adjusting 49 of these disputes, 51 were pending at the end of the month, 5 were referred to other services, 4 were settled by the disputants themselves before the arrival of the conciliator, and 2 could not be adjusted.

The majority of these disputes concerned demands for wage increases. Many were due to alleged discrimination against union members for union activity, others were for union recognition and

selection of sole bargaining agency. Some involved hours, overtime rates of pay, vacation with pay, seniority rights, and general working conditions.

These 111 disputes were scattered among 26 States and the District of Columbia. Workers involved in the disputes are classified in table 2. Strikes numbered 48 and controversies, 63.

TABLE 2.—*Disputes Handled by Conciliators, January 1938, by Craft of Workers Involved*

Craft	Total disputes		Threatened strikes and controversies		Strikes	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
Bakery workers	3	917	1	887	2	[1] 30
Barbers	1	(1)	1	(1)		
Brushes, rubber	1	265	1	265		
Building	4	257	3	[1] 256	1	1
Building service	1	235			1	235
Cannery workers	1	44			1	44
Chemical workers	1	(1)			1	(1)
Clerks	3	[1] 25	1	25	2	(1)
Creamery	1	(1)	1	(1)		
Dredgemen	1	(1)			1	(1)
Drivers	12	[1] 1,290	6	[1] 356	6	[1] 934
Electrical workers	1	40	1	40		
Food handlers	6	[1] 5,723	3	3,323	3	2,400
Furniture	3	400	1	135	2	265
Garment workers	3	597	2	422	1	175
Glass workers	2	74	2	74		
Hotel workers	1	367	1	367		
Laundries	5	[1] 1,315	4	[1] 715	1	600
Lime and cement	1	110			1	110
Liquor handlers	2	450	2	450		
Longshoremen	2	6,660			2	6,660
Lumber	1	(1)	1	(1)		
Mechanics	8	[1] 679	6	[1] 662	2	17
Metal workers	2	158	2	158		
Millinery	1	150	1	150		
Mine, mill, and smelter	2	[1] 150			2	[1] 150
Office workers	1	35	1	35		
Oil handlers	4	[1] 105	2	[1] 95	2	10
Printing	3	[1] 8,674	1	(1)	2	[1] 8,674
Refinery, sugar	1	1,000			1	1,000
Rubber workers	1	8	1	8		
Shipping	2	117	2	117		
Shoe workers	3	590			3	590
Steel and iron	2	1,606	1	106	1	1,500
Stove workers	2	441	1	116	1	325
Street railway	2	620	1	590	1	30
Telegraphers	2	515	1	400	1	115
Textile workers	17	[1] 5,321	10	[1] 3,583	7	[1] 1,738
Timber workers	1	85	1	85		
Woodworkers	1	167	1	167		
Total	111	[1] 39,190	63	[1] 13,587	48	[1] 25,603

[1] Exact number not known.

Labor Statistics

ACTIVITIES OF THE CENTRAL STATISTICAL BOARD, 1936–37

THE principal field of activity of the Central Statistical Board is in reviewing plans for proposed statistical studies and checking the operations of projects already under way. This work was considerably expanded during the fiscal year 1936–37 as a result of a resolution by the Central Statistical Committee requiring Federal Departments and agencies to submit to the Board questionnaires which have been prepared for use in statistical inquiries. In its third annual report, the Central Statistical Board presents details of its operation for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1937.

Wide decentralization of the Government's statistical organizations, resulting from the development of statistical work as an aid to administration, had tended to create duplication of effort and lack of uniformity in presentation of results. Through its review functions the Board has been able to locate and prevent many of these duplications. Suggestions have been made looking toward improvement in reliability, accuracy and usefulness of the various statistical reports. The Board has been instrumental on several occasions in effecting informal cooperative arrangements between departments for the more economical and efficient pursuit of statistical inquiries, the results of which are of general value. Its continued emphasis on standardized definitions and classifications has made the statistical output of wider usefulness and has done much to simplify reports requested of business concerns.

During the fiscal year covered by this report, the Board reviewed nearly 900 questionnaires or other documents which were submitted in connection with proposed statistical inquiries. In many instances several interested agencies were consulted for advice and criticism as to the feasibility of the project or details of the questionnaires. For example, the trial schedules for the 1940 census of agriculture were sent to 16 different agencies.

The Board has also been active in promoting simplification of reports required under the Social Security Act. The report notes that suggestions have been made for several technical amendments to the act, designed to reduce the heavy clerical burden on reporting firms.

Through a joint unit known as the Coordinating Committee, the Board has continued its review activities in connection with The Works Program. Members of the staff have given technical advice and assistance in drafting project plans. A comprehensive study of data-compiling projects has been made available to project sponsors who are seeking suitable means of supplying employment to white-collar relief workers.

Another important field in which the Central Statistical Board has been active is in the elimination of overlapping statistical jurisdiction. Successful results have been obtained in connection with current business inquiries in the Department of Commerce, in statistics for the electrical industries, accident statistics, construction and real-estate data, and reports on relief and public assistance. In each instance the Board has been instrumental in securing agreements whereby information collected by certain Federal agencies might be made available to other Departments, thus avoiding duplicate reporting of essentially identical information.

At the request of the Director of the Census, the Board in 1934 began an investigation of the organizations and work of the several divisions in the Bureau of the Census. On the basis of this survey, the results of which became available in 1937, the Board was able to make a series of recommendations for more efficient and economical administrative procedure in the Bureau.

In line with its aim of improving the Government's statistical output, the Board has cooperated closely with the Civil Service Commission in developing improved civil-service examination procedures.

These and many other similar activities illustrate the importance of the Central Statistical Board as a coordinating agency. Although the Board's appropriation for the coming year has been reduced by 50 percent, the report concludes by stating that:

> The Board will continue its regular review of questionnaires and plans for statistical inquiries and its efforts to coordinate the statistical services in fields where there is overlapping administrative responsibility.
>
> It is unavoidable that the reduction in budget will materially impair the Board's efforts to coordinate Federal statistical activities, to prevent duplication, and to plan improvements in Government statistics during the coming fiscal year.

Cost of Living

CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN THE UNITED STATES, DECEMBER 1937

THE cost of living for families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in 32 large cities of the United States dropped 0.6 percent during the quarter ending December 15, 1937. This decline reflected markedly lower food costs which more than counterbalanced net increases in the cost of most other items of family expenditure.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics index of the cost of all goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in the 32 cities combined is 84.5, as of December 15, 1937, as compared with 85.0 on September 15, 1937, using average costs in 1923–25 as 100. Costs in December 1937 were 2.5 percent higher than a year before, 13.4 percent higher than at the low point in June 1933, but 15.2 percent lower than in December 1929.

The net decrease in average costs reflected declines in total costs in all but five cities. One city, Boston, reported a drop of more than 2 percent in total costs. Of the five cities reporting increases, the largest rise occurred in Detroit, 1.1 percent, due to advances in the cost of all groups of items except food, and particularly to a steep rise in rents.

The average food costs, in the cities covered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, were 3.7 percent lower on December 15, 1937, than on September 15. A net decline over the quarter was reported in each of the cities for which indexes of total costs are prepared. Atlanta reported costs in December 7.1 percent below September, Birmingham 6.9, Boston 6.3, and Kansas City and Richmond 5.7 percent. Five other cities widely scattered throughout the country showed declines of more than 5 percent. The smallest change noted was in San Francisco, where costs were 0.8 percent lower at the end than at the beginning of the quarter. The major factor in the decline was the sharp drop in the price of meats.

Clothing costs in December were at approximately the same level as in September. The rise in clothing costs which had been reported in all cities for the four preceding reporting periods continued into this quarter, but in many cities a break occurred before December 15. Sixteen cities reported net increases in clothing costs over the quarter. In each of the 16 cities for which the index shows declines, the drop was less than 1 percent.

Increases in rents occurred in 29 of the 32 cities, resulting in an average rise, for the 32 cities, of 1.8 percent. Three reported large increases as of October 1—Birmingham 11.5 percent and Detroit and Memphis 6.7 percent. Rental levels in these cities, which declined sharply before 1934, are still considerably below rentals in 1923–25. Taking average rents over the years 1923–25 as 100, the index of rental costs on December 15, 1937, in Birmingham was 59.9, in Memphis 63.3, and in Detroit 70.5. Negligible declines between September 15 and December 15 were noted in three cities—Boston, Scranton, and Washington.

A seasonal rise in fuel and light costs occurred in all but four cities. The increase in most instances was due to the seasonal upturn in coal prices. The largest rise was reported in Houston, where wood prices registered a sharp increase. Jacksonville reported a decrease of 2.1 percent in fuel and light costs, due to declines in the cost of both wood and kerosene.

Average costs of housefurnishing goods increased 0.9 percent, as a result of advances in 28 of the 32 cities. Three cities reported increases of more than 2 percent, Detroit (2.4) and Houston and San Francisco (2.1 percent each). Slight decreases were reported in four cities.

Prices of miscellaneous items showed little change in most of the cities. Increases occurred in 24 cities, decreases in 7, and no change in 1, resulting in a net increase of 0.6 percent for the combined cities. Two cities reported advances of more than 2 percent. In Detroit, the rise of 3.0 percent was largely the result of an increase in admission prices to movies, although the cost of laundry and of barbers' services also increased; in Cleveland, an increase of 2.5 percent was due mainly to increased street car fares. All declines reported were slight.

Percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in 32 large cities of the United States, from September 15 to December 15, 1937, are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Changes from September 15, 1937, to December 15, 1937, in Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers*

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
Average: 32 large cities	−0.6	[1]−3.7	[2]	+1.8	+1.5	+0.9	+0.6
New England:							
Boston	−2.3	−6.3	−0.2	[2]	+2.7	+.5	−.6
Portland, Maine	−1.5	−4.7	+.4	+.4	−.2	+.3	[3]
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	+.1	−1.1	+.1	+.9	+.6	+1.6	+.4
New York	−.2	−1.8	−.5	+1.0	+1.4	+.9	+.6
Philadelphia	−1.3	−5.0	+.1	+1.1	+.9	+1.1	+.3
Pittsburgh	−1.6	−4.5	−1.0	[3]	[3]	−.7	[3]
Scranton	−1.5	−5.2	−.5	−.1	+3.1	+.7	+.2
East North Central:							
Chicago	−.5	−3.9	+.5	+3.0	+1.9	+1.1	[2]
Cincinnati	−.9	−4.4	+.5	+.7	+2.3	+.2	+.7
Cleveland	+.2	−3.5	−.5	+3.0	[3]	−.6	+2.5
Detroit	+1.1	−4.5	+1.1	+6.7	+2.6	+2.4	+3.0
Indianapolis	−.6	−3.7	+.4	+2.4	+1.6	+.6	[2]
West North Central:							
Kansas City	−1.6	−5.7	−.2	+2.0	+1.0	+1.2	−.3
Minneapolis	−.1	−1.0	−.4	+.9	+.2	+.3	+.2
St. Louis	−1.2	−4.3	[3]	+.6	+1.2	+.4	+.1
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta	−1.9	−7.1	+.5	+.6	+3.0	−.2	[4]
Baltimore	−.6	−3.1	+.6	+1.8	+.3	+1.0	+.2
Jacksonville	−.5	−2.6	−.4	+2.9	−2.1	+.8	[3]
Norfolk	−.7	−4.4	−.5	+3.0	+2.4	+.7	[3]
Richmond	−1.7	−5.7	+.3	+.1	+.3	+.9	−.1
Savannah	−.6	−5.1	−.3	+4.7	+.8	+1.4	[3]
Washington, D. C.	−1.0	−4.6	+.6	−.1	+2.0	+.6	+1.8
East South Central:							
Birmingham	−.7	−6.9	−.9	+11.5	+2.0	−.5	+.5
Memphis	+.1	−3.3	[2]	+6.7	−.2	+.6	[3]
Mobile	−1.1	−5.3	[2]	+4.0	+2.3	+.1	[2]
West South Central:							
Houston	−.1	−2.7	+.5	+.9	+7.4	+2.1	+.5
New Orleans	−.9	−3.5	+.3	+1.0	+1.0	+1.0	+.2
Mountain:							
Denver	−.5	−2.2	−.5	+1.2	+.4	+.6	[2]
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	−.3	−5.0	+1.0	+2.4	−.1	+1.4	+1.4
Portland, Oreg	−1.0	−3.9	−.5	+.7	+.2	+1.1	+.1
San Francisco	+.7	−.8	+.7	+.8	+1.0	+2.1	+1.9
Seattle	−.2	−3.3	−.3	+.6	+3.3	+.5	+1.2

[1] Covers 51 cities.
[2] Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.
[3] Increase of less than 0.05 percent.
[4] No change.

Percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers from a peak point in June 1920, from December 1929, from the low point June 1933, and from December 15, 1936, to December 15, 1937, in 32 cities, are presented in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Change in Cost of All Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers for Specified Periods*

City	Percent of decrease from—		Percent of increase from—	
	June 1920 to Dec. 15, 1937	December 1929 to Dec. 15, 1937	June 1933 to Dec. 15, 1937	Dec. 15, 1936, to Dec. 15, 1937
Average: 32 large cities	30.3	15.2	13.4	2.5
New England:				
Boston	30.7	16.6	10.3	1.4
Portland, Maine	31.3	14.0	9.9	.7
Middle Atlantic:				
Buffalo	28.6	14.9	12.9	3.2
New York	26.9	14.8	10.7	2.6
Philadelphia	30.0	16.7	11.0	.8
Pittsburgh	30.6	16.7	14.0	3.3
Scranton	31.8	18.4	9.4	[1] 1.0
East North Central:				
Chicago	30.9	18.9	14.3	3.0
Cincinnati	29.7	15.4	12.8	2.5
Cleveland	27.8	11.0	15.8	3.8
Detroit	34.4	14.0	26.8	5.6
Indianapolis	34.8	15.5	13.9	2.0
West North Central:				
Kansas City	36.3	13.8	10.2	1.4
Minneapolis	29.9	13.2	15.1	1.5
St. Louis	32.0	16.6	12.8	2.2
South Atlantic:				
Atlanta	37.1	15.5	15.4	1.3
Baltimore	27.4	12.8	12.8	1.5
Jacksonville	34.0	14.7	15.1	2.0
Norfolk	34.0	14.1	13.8	.8
Richmond	32.2	13.4	12.9	[1] .6
Savannah	36.1	16.3	10.9	2.1
Washington, D. C	27.5	10.2	13.7	1.4
East South Central:				
Birmingham	37.7	17.8	17.5	3.4
Memphis	32.9	14.2	13.4	1.8
Mobile	34.0	17.2	12.4	2.5
West South Central:				
Houston	32.1	14.9	17.2	2.4
New Orleans	28.0	14.6	12.0	1.7
Mountain:				
Denver	31.8	11.7	14.6	2.7
Pacific:				
Los Angeles	28.6	15.7	13.5	2.8
Portland, Oreg	33.3	11.2	17.0	3.1
San Francisco	24.6	11.1	13.4	5.1
Seattle	29.6	11.2	13.2	4.4

[1] Decrease.

Indexes on 1923–25 Base

Indexes of the average cost of goods purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers are constructed for each of the 32 cities surveyed and for these cities combined, using an average of the years 1923–25 as the base. These indexes, from 1913 through December 15, 1937, for the 32 cities combined, are shown in table 3. The accompanying chart presents these data in graphic form.

The cost-of-living indexes presented here show changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers from time to time in each of the 32 large cities covered by the Bureau of

Labor Statistics, but they do not measure differences in the cost of these goods from city to city. There are serious technical difficulties in determining the cost of the same level of living from one part of the country to another. No satisfactory techniques have been developed for measuring differences in such costs from large to small cities or from cities to rural communities. In large cities with similar climate, comparisons are possible with the use of standard specifications, but such studies, because of their great expense, are beyond the present resources of this Bureau.

In pricing for the Bureau's indexes, the type of goods priced has been varied from city to city in conformity with the purchasing habits of moderate-income families in each city where prices are secured. Accordingly, although in any one city the kind and quality of goods priced are held constant from year to year insofar as possible, differences between the indexes of the various cities at any particular date are due entirely to differences in the rate of change of living costs in each city. Similarly, the differences in the average costs from which the indexes are computed in different cities may be due to varying standards and purchasing habits in these cities as well as to varying prices for goods of given grades.

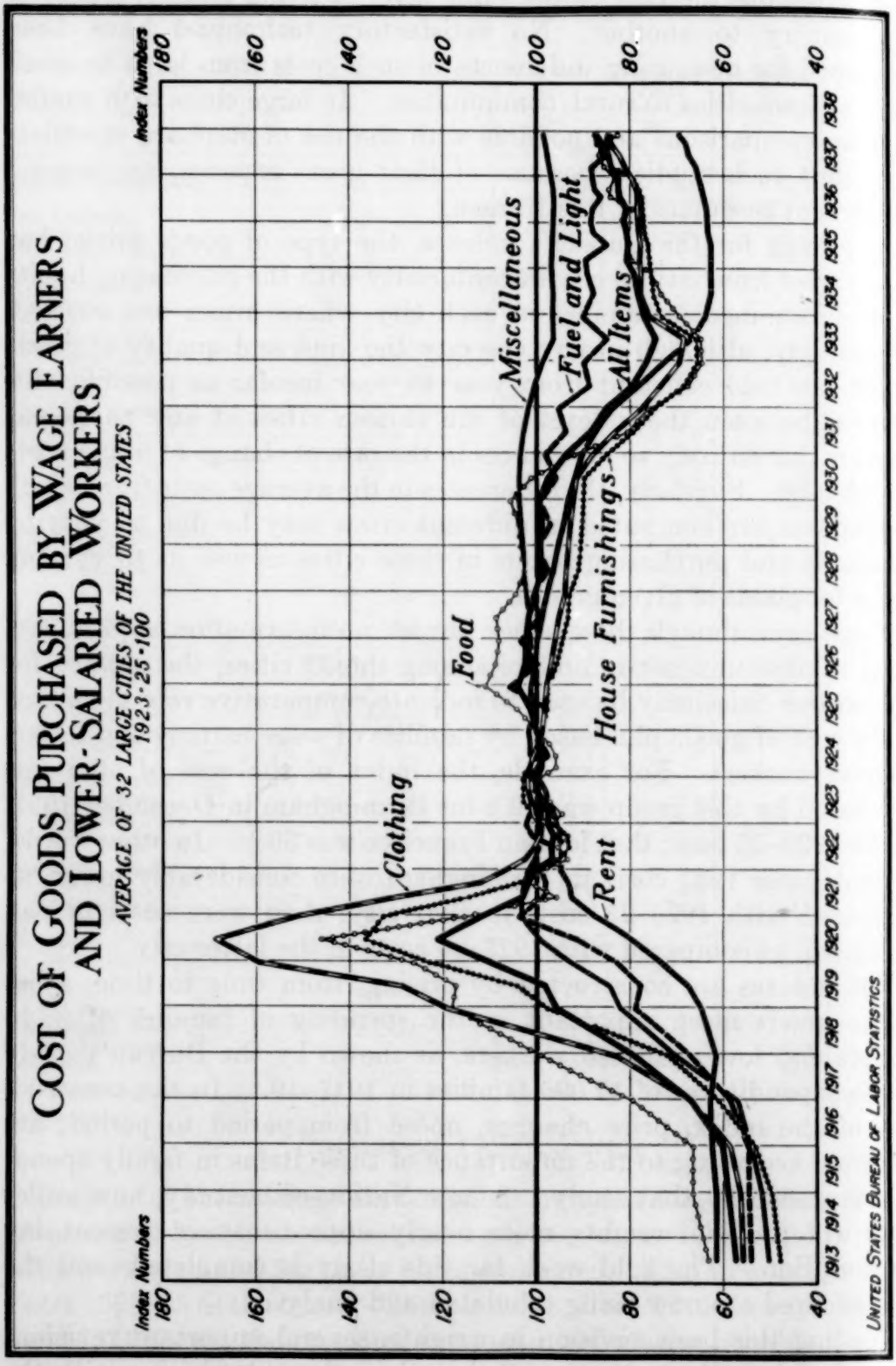
Thus, even though these series furnish no information as to differences in absolute cost in dollars among the 32 cities, the indexes for the various cities may be used to indicate comparative rate of change in the cost of goods purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers. For example, the index of the cost of all items purchased by this group was 79.0 for Birmingham in December 1937, on the 1923–25 base; that for San Francisco was 89.1. In other words, in September 1937 costs in Birmingham were considerably lower, as compared with 1923–25 costs in that city, than were costs in San Francisco, as compared with 1923–25 costs in the latter city.

The indexes are constructed by pricing, from time to time, a list of the goods most important in the spending of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, as shown by the Bureau's study of the expenditures of 12,096 families in 1917–19.[1] In the construction of the index, price changes, noted from period to period, are weighted according to the importance of these items in family spending, as shown by that study. A new Nation-wide study, now under way, will provide weights more nearly approximating present-day consumption. The field work for this study is completed, and the data secured are now being tabulated and analyzed.

Pending this basic revision in weights, several important revisions in method have been incorporated in the indexes beginning with the March 15, 1935, period. The food and all-items indexes, as well as the indexes for the 32 cities combined, have been revised back to the

[1] The results of this study were published in the Bureau's Bull. N . 35 .

base years.[2] The pamphlet to contain data for December 15, 1937, now in press, will present the complete series.



The prices used in the construction of the food indexes are taken from retail-price quotations secured in 51 cities. Beginning with the

[2] For details of this revision, see the article which appeared in the September 1935 Monthly Labor Review: Revision of Index of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers.

year 1935, they cover 84 articles, instead of 42 as in the past. For all goods and services other than food and fuel and light, prices have been secured in 32 cities. Prices of the items included in the food and fuel and light indexes are obtained by mail, all others by personal visits of representatives of the Bureau.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 32 Large Cities Combined, 1913 Through Dec. 15, 1937*

[Average 1923–25=100]

Date	All items	Food [1]	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
1913—Average	57.4	63.1	55.7	61.4	53.9	47.7	50.1
1914—December	58.9	66.3	56.3	61.4	54.5	49.6	51.6
1915—December	60.1	66.3	58.3	62.3	54.5	52.8	53.9
1916—December	66.9	79.5	66.9	62.8	58.5	61.0	56.8
1917—December	79.4	99.1	83.1	61.5	66.9	71.8	70.4
1918—December	95.8	118.2	118.9	64.7	78.7	97.8	81.9
1919—June	98.2	117.3	128.8	67.3	77.8	104.0	84.3
December	109.8	126.4	159.5	73.1	82.6	123.0	92.9
1920—June	121.2	146.1	168.6	79.4	91.3	137.0	99.2
December	112.2	115.7	151.0	87.5	103.7	132.8	103.2
1921—May	102.8	95.8	129.8	92.7	98.4	114.3	103.2
September	101.7	102.1	112.2	93.3	98.2	103.2	102.5
December	100.3	99.7	107.2	94.8	99.1	100.4	102.0
1922—March	96.8	93.5	102.4	94.6	96.3	95.0	100.4
June	97.0	95.6	100.4	95.0	95.9	93.2	99.5
September	96.4	93.3	99.3	95.2	100.9	93.4	99.2
December	97.7	96.7	99.4	95.8	102.2	96.3	98.9
1923—March	97.6	94.6	100.8	96.3	101.5	100.7	99.0
June	[2] 98.7	[2] 97.7	101.1	97.3	98.7	102.8	99.1
September	[2] 99.9	[2] 100.0	101.9	98.2	99.8	102.9	99.6
December	100.2	99.5	101.8	99.7	101.1	102.9	100.0
1924—March	99.0	95.9	101.5	100.2	99.9	102.1	99.7
June	98.9	96.0	100.6	101.3	97.6	99.4	99.8
September	99.2	97.3	99.5	101.4	98.9	98.6	99.8
December	100.0	99.5	98.9	101.7	99.5	99.1	100.2
1925—June	101.4	104.2	98.5	101.4	97.9	97.9	100.8
December	104.0	111.1	97.9	101.3	105.8	97.8	101.1
1926—June	102.5	108.9	97.1	100.4	100.0	95.8	101.0
December	102 3	108 1	96.2	100 0	103 4	94.7	101.4
1927—June	101.9	108.7	95.3	99.0	99.4	93.4	101.7
December	100.4	104.7	94.0	97.9	100.6	93.0	102 1
1928—June	99.2	102.5	93.8	96.5	97.7	91.1	102.1
December	99.4	103.2	93.3	95.5	99.7	90.5	102.8
1929—June	99.1	103.7	92.8	94.3	97.0	90.2	103.0
December	99.6	105.7	92.2	93.3	99.1	89.9	103.4
1930—June	97.7	101.2	91.5	92.0	95.9	88.8	103.7
December	93.8	92.1	88.1	90.1	98.1	85.1	103.4
1931—June	88.3	80.6	83.4	87.3	93.7	79.3	102.8
December	85.1	76.2	77.6	83.9	95.3	74.9	101.8
1932—June	79.7	67.6	73.5	78.5	88.8	68.4	100.4
December	76.6	64.7	69.5	72.7	89.8	65.6	98.8
1933—June	74.5	64.9	68.4	66.8	84.9	65.8	96.4
December	77.2	69.6	76.2	63 9	90.0	73.5	96.8
1934—June	78.4	73.4	77.9	62.7	87.7	75.0	96.6
Nov. 15	79.1	75.3	77.8	62.7	89.0	75.5	96.7
1935—Mar. 15	80.6	79.8	78.0	62.6	89.3	76.0	96.8
July 15	80.4	80.2	77.8	62.7	84.9	76.2	96.7
Oct. 15	80.7	80.2	78.0	63.3	87.7	77.0	96.6
1936—Jan. 15	81.3	81.6	78.3	63.5	88.3	77.0	96.6
Apr. 15	80.6	79.4	78.6	63.7	88.0	77.3	96.5
July 15	82.0	84.0	78.4	64.2	86.1	77.5	96.4
Sept. 15	82.4	84.3	78.6	64.6	87.4	78.2	96.5
Dec. 15	82.4	82.9	79.6	65.4	87.8	79.2	96.8
1937—Mar. 15	83.8	85.4	80.9	65.9	88.1	83.1	97.3
June 15	84.5	86.3	82.1	67.5	84.9	85.1	97.7
Sept. 15	85.0	85.8	84.0	68.1	86.0	86.7	98.1
Dec. 15	84.5	82.6	84.0	69.3	87.3	87.5	98.6

[1] Covers 51 cities since June 1920.

[2] Corrected figure.

The indexes of the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show relative costs as of particular dates. For various purposes, however, it is often necessary to have estimates of annual average indexes. These estimates are, therefore, presented in table 4, for 32 cities combined, from 1913 through 1937. The annual average indexes have been computed as follows: The annual average food index is an average of the indexes falling within each year; the annual average indexes for clothing, rent, fuel and light, housefurnishing goods, and miscellaneous items are indexes of the weighted average of the aggregates for each pricing period affecting the year, the weights representing the relative importance of each pricing period. When these goods were priced only twice a year, in June and again in December, it is evident that prices in December of the previous year were more indicative of prices in the next month, January, even though it fell in a new year, than were the prices of the succeeding June. Therefore, costs in December of the preceding year and in June and December of the given year are all considered in arriving at an average cost for the year. The relative importance of each of these costs is expressed for December of the previous year by 2½; for June of the given year by 6; and for December of the given year by 3½. Weights for years in which pricing was done at other intervals will be furnished on request.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated* [1] *Annual Average Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 32 Large Cities Combined, 1913 Through 1937*

[Average 1923-25=100]

Year	All items	Food [2]	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
1913	57.4	63.1	55.7	61.4	53.9	47.7	50.1
1914	[3] 58.2	[3] 64.6	56.1	61.4	54.3	49.0	51.2
1915	[3] 58.8	[3] 63.9	57.4	61.9	54.5	51.3	52.8
1916	[3] 63.2	[3] 71.7	62.9	62.6	56.6	57.2	55.5
1917	[3] 74.4	[3] 92.4	75.6	62.1	63.0	66.9	64.2
1918	[3] 87.2	[3] 106.2	102.5	63.2	73.3	85.9	76.7
1919	101.1	120.2	135.7	68.4	79.4	108.2	86.3
1920	116.2	133.1	161.6	80.4	93.1	132.8	99.1
1921	103.6	101.6	124.4	92.4	99.3	111.8	102.8
1922	97.2	95.0	101.0	95.1	98.6	94.8	99.7
1923	99.0	97.9	101.2	97.5	100.3	101.8	99.3
1924	99.2	96.9	100.4	101.0	99.1	100.1	99.9
1925	101.8	105.0	98.4	101.5	100.6	98.1	100.8
1926	102.6	108.5	97.0	100.5	102.2	95.9	101.1
1927	100.6	104.5	95.1	98.9	100.6	93.6	101.7
1928	99.5	103.3	93.7	96.5	98.9	91.3	102.3
1929	99.5	104.7	92.7	94.3	98.2	90.2	103.1
1930	97.0	99.6	90.7	91.7	97.2	87.9	103.5
1931	88.6	82.0	82.7	86.9	95.1	79.2	102.7
1932	79.8	68.3	73.2	78.0	90.4	68.9	100.2
1933	75.8	66.4	70.9	67.2	87.4	68.0	97.0
1934	78.6	74.1	77.5	62.9	88.6	74.9	96.7
1935	80.7	80.5	77.9	62.9	87.5	76.4	96.7
1936	81.6	82.1	78.7	64.2	87.5	77.8	96.5
1937 [4]	84.3	85.1	82.4	67.4	86.6	84.9	97.8

[1] For explanation of method used, see above.
[2] Covers 51 cities since June 1920.
[3] A correction of clerical errors which appeared in the Monthly Labor Reviews for August and October 1937.
[4] Preliminary

Table 5 presents December 15, 1937, indexes of living costs for families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers based on average costs in the years 1923–25 as 100, for each of the 32 cities, by groups of items.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers, by Groups of Items, December 15, 1937*

[Average 1923–25=100]

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
Average: 32 large cities	84.5	[1] 82.6	84.0	69.3	87.3	87.5	98.6
New England:							
Boston	84.5	78.7	88.6	75.7	85.1	86.4	99.0
Portland, Maine	86.4	81.4	83.5	76.3	82.8	93.2	103.7
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	86.5	81.8	83.4	73.8	98.1	97.6	99.5
New York	86.5	86.0	82.9	77.1	86.5	81.6	99.2
Philadelphia	83.2	83.9	78.8	68.7	81.0	86.0	95.7
Pittsburgh	83.5	81.1	82.2	69.2	101.0	86.7	96.4
Scranton	82.9	77.0	84.4	73.0	76.8	93.7	97.2
East North Central:							
Chicago	80.8	84.2	77.2	58.1	92.3	78.5	100.9
Cincinnati	88.3	83.3	84.0	77.6	98.0	97.1	101.6
Cleveland	87.0	81.9	87.0	70.2	100.4	84.4	104.4
Detroit	83.3	82.5	85.3	70.5	79.2	86.9	96.4
Indianapolis	83.1	81.6	82.3	66.1	85.3	91.3	93.6
West North Central:							
Kansas City	83.2	82.0	83.1	61.8	84.5	82.4	99.8
Minneapolis	85.9	87.1	81.8	71.2	91.1	91.3	97.6
St. Louis	84.8	86.3	84.8	58.5	88.6	92.6	102.2
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta	82.3	76.6	87.6	65.7	75.6	93.9	94.8
Baltimore	87.7	86.1	83.8	76.1	81.2	87.7	104.8
Jacksonville	82.0	79.4	84.2	59.9	89.0	85.4	93.0
Norfolk	86.3	79.8	90.6	64.6	81.9	89.5	104.0
Richmond	85.4	76.0	92.1	72.9	82.0	96.5	99.6
Savannah	82.8	80.8	87.3	63.7	85.4	91.2	92.3
Washington, D. C	88.8	83.6	85.3	88.1	84.2	92.8	100.4
East South Central:							
Birmingham	79.0	72.8	90.3	59.9	83.1	83.2	92.2
Memphis	82.9	78.6	89.7	63.3	88.4	96.7	94.9
Mobile	84.1	76.6	90.6	66.7	72.5	92.7	99.6
West South Central:							
Houston	83.9	80.4	79.7	73.0	79.3	97.4	95.1
New Orleans	84.4	84.2	83.7	72.2	77.3	98.4	91.8
Mountain:							
Denver	85.4	87.8	80.3	64.4	78.1	94.0	100.5
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	79.2	74.9	87.6	55.0	82.2	83.9	94.2
Portland, Oreg	85.0	82.3	83.6	62.4	86.9	86.9	101.9
San Francisco	89.1	85.1	94.9	73.0	80.2	91.9	104.2
Seattle	88.5	81.5	91.8	71.2	98.1	94.5	101.1

[1] Covers 51 cities.

Table 6 presents indexes of the cost of all goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in each of the 32 cities, for each date from June 1926 through December 15, 1937, on the 1923–25 base. Indexes by groups of items for each of the 32 cities for the corresponding dates are presented in the Bureau's pamphlet, "Changes in Cost of Living, December 15, 1937."

TABLE 6.—*Indexes of Cost of All Goods, Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Each of 32 Large Cities, June 1926 Through Dec. 15, 1937*

[Average 1923–25 = 100]

Date	New England		Middle Atlantic					East North Central
	Boston	Portland, Maine	Buffalo	New York	Philadelphia	Pittsburgh	Scranton	Chicago
1926—June	102.5	102.0	104.6	102.4	104.8	103.6	104.1	102.9
December	103.5	101.8	103.7	102.7	104.5	103.2	103.8	102.9
1927—June	101.9	101.7	103.3	101.8	103.3	103.0	103.5	102.6
December	102.2	100.4	101.7	102.5	102.2	101.3	102.4	100.2
1928—June	99.5	98.9	101.5	100.3	101.0	99.9	101.7	99.0
December	100.9	100.0	101.0	101.1	99.6	101.0	101.9	99.3
1929—June	99.6	99.7	101.3	100.7	99.2	100.8	101.4	98.9
December	101.4	100.4	101.7	101.5	99.9	100.2	101.6	99.7
1930—June	98.7	98.4	100.3	98.8	97.6	98.6	99.0	97.8
December	95.9	95.4	95.6	96.5	94.3	93.8	95.2	93.5
1931—June	89.4	90.9	90.0	91.2	89.7	88.4	88.7	88.0
December	87.2	88.1	85.7	88.1	86.3	84.7	85.5	84.4
1932—June	80.5	83.5	82.3	84.2	80.4	78.7	80.1	77.1
December	78.6	79.9	78.4	81.0	76.8	76.0	78.0	73.4
1933—June	76.6	78.6	76.6	78.1	74.9	73.2	75.8	70.7
December	79.7	82.5	78.8	80.5	78.4	76.0	80.0	72.4
1934—June	81.3	83.6	80.2	81.8	79.9	77.7	80.8	72.7
Nov. 15	82.0	84.4	79.9	82.1	79.6	77.8	80.6	73.5
1935—Mar. 15	82.9	84.6	81.6	83.6	80.4	79.2	81.9	76.2
July 15	82.7	85.3	82.0	83.1	80.4	79.1	82.1	76.0
Oct. 15	82.9	85.0	81.6	83.4	80.9	79.6	82.8	76.1
1936—Jan. 15	85.0	85.3	82.5	84.2	81.9	79.9	83.2	76.7
Apr. 15	82.6	84.7	81.8	83.0	81.3	79.1	81.8	76.2
July 15	84.2	86.5	84.1	83.8	82.1	80.7	83.2	77.6
Sept. 15	83.5	85.7	83.3	84.4	82.1	80.8	83.2	78.4
Dec. 15	83.3	85.8	83.8	84.3	82.5	80.8	83.7	78.5
1937—Mar. 15	84.2	86.6	84.9	85.1	83.4	82.1	84.0	80.0
June 15	85.1	87.6	87.1	84.9	84.0	84.6	84.9	81.2
Sept. 15	86.5	87.7	86.4	86.7	84.3	84.9	84.2	81.3
Dec. 15	84.5	86.4	86.5	86.5	83.2	83.5	82.9	80.8

Date	East North Central—Continued				West North Central			South Atlantic
	Cincinnati	Cleveland	Detroit	Indianapolis	Kansas City	Minneapolis	St. Louis	Atlanta
1926—June	105.4	102.6	101.4	101.9	101.5	102.5	104.2	102.7
December	104.6	101.8	100.4	101.2	99.6	100.9	103.7	100.9
1927—June	106.5	102.0	100.6	102.3	99.5	101.1	104.1	103.1
December	102.3	99.4	97.5	98.4	96.1	98.2	100.8	98.1
1928—June	102.8	99.2	96.2	98.0	96.2	98.5	100.2	99.0
December	102.0	98.1	96.3	97.4	95.6	97.6	99.8	98.7
1929—June	103.4	98.6	97.1	97.4	95.5	97.9	100.8	97.6
December	104.4	97.8	96.9	98.4	96.5	99.0	101.6	97.4
1930—June	103.0	97.8	94.6	97.1	95.1	98.0	99.5	94.0
December	98.8	93.3	88.3	91.9	92.6	94.0	94.7	89.9
1931—June	92.8	87.3	82.4	85.3	88.9	89.6	88.5	84.4
December	89.3	84.3	77.2	81.7	85.1	86.6	84.0	79.8
1932—June	82.9	80.5	71.6	77.0	79.0	80.9	79.5	75.9
December	79.7	76.4	67.9	73.9	76.9	78.2	76.4	71.9
1933—June	78.3	75.2	65.7	73.0	75.5	74.6	75.1	71.3
December	80.5	77.2	69.1	75.5	76.7	78.2	77.0	74.7
1934—June	81.7	78.6	71.5	77.0	77.9	79.2	78.7	75.8
Nov. 15	82.2	78.8	71.9	76.5	79.2	79.6	79.4	77.1
1935—Mar. 15	85.1	81.3	74.2	78.9	80.4	81.3	81.4	78.4
July 15	84.0	81.4	75.1	78.8	79.5	81.5	81.6	78.3
Oct. 15	84.5	81.5	75.9	79.1	80.1	81.3	81.2	79.6
1936—Jan. 15	85.2	81.7	76.7	79.8	80.2	82.6	82.1	79.9
Apr. 15	84.3	81.7	77.0	79.2	79.6	81.8	81.4	79.0
July 15	87.2	83.4	78.9	81.4	81.9	83.9	82.8	80.6
Sept. 15	87.4	84.3	79.0	81.8	82.9	84.5	83.8	81.5
Dec. 15	86.2	83.8	78.8	81.5	82.0	84.7	82.9	81.3
1937—Mar. 15	88.6	85.4	80.9	83.5	84.1	86.8	84.7	82.4
June 15	89.0	86.5	82.5	84.5	85.3	86.6	85.4	83.0
Sept. 15	89.1	86.9	82.3	83.6	84.5	86.0	85.8	83.9
Dec. 15	88.3	87.0	83.3	83.1	83.2	85.9	84.8	82.3

TABLE 6.—*Indexes of Cost of All Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Each of 32 Large Cities, June 1926 Through Dec. 15, 1937*—Continued

Date	South Atlantic—Continued						East South Central	
	Baltimore	Jacksonville	Norfolk	Richmond	Savannah	Washington, D. C.	Birmingham	Memphis
1926—June	103.4	109.0	101.7	104.7	102.4	103.2	103.0	100.8
December	102.5	107.7	101.4	102.9	101.6	102.5	102.1	100.0
1927—June	102.1	104.8	102.3	103.0	101.1	100.5	100.7	99.9
December	100.1	102.0	100.3	99.7	100.0	99.5	100.0	97.1
1928—June	100.1	98.7	99.6	100.0	99.2	99.1	98.2	96.5
December	99.1	98.2	99.9	98.5	99.8	98.6	97.5	97.0
1929—June	99.7	97.2	99.7	97.7	99.0	99.0	96.9	97.1
December	100.5	96.1	100.6	98.6	98.9	98.9	96.1	96.7
1930—June	99.5	94.1	98.8	98.1	96.9	97.4	94.2	96.0
December	95.8	90.6	95.4	93.5	93.2	94.7	89.3	91.3
1931—June	90.8	85.4	89.8	88.2	89.3	89.6	80.7	85.3
December	87.9	81.2	86.2	85.6	84.3	87.0	76.9	82.1
1932—June	82.7	76.3	81.2	80.3	79.1	82.0	70.9	77.0
December	79.9	73.5	78.7	77.1	76.7	79.1	68.5	73.8
1933—June	77.7	71.3	75.9	75.7	74.6	78.1	67.2	73.1
December	81.4	75.5	80.9	79.9	78.3	81.8	70.2	76.1
1934—June	82.0	76.6	82.5	80.9	78.9	83.0	71.0	77.0
Nov. 15	82.9	77.2	82.9	81.7	79.4	83.9	73.4	78.8
1935—Mar. 15	83.9	77.8	83.7	82.9	80.0	85.3	73.6	79.5
July 15	84.5	78.6	83.3	82.7	80.2	85.6	74.1	78.6
Oct. 15	84.9	78.9	84.1	83.6	81.2	86.3	75.3	78.7
1936—Jan. 15	85.6	79.4	84.9	83.6	81.2	86.7	75.0	79.4
Apr. 15	85.0	78.5	83.7	82.8	79.4	85.5	73.9	79.3
July 15	86.0	80.2	84.8	84.3	80.7	87.0	76.0	80.5
Sept. 15	86.4	80.1	85.2	85.5	81.0	87.4	76.5	81.1
Dec. 15	86.4	80.4	85.7	86.0	81.1	87.6	76.4	81.5
1937—Mar. 15	87.0	81.5	86.5	86.5	81.8	87.8	78.7	82.8
June 15	87.4	82.1	86.8	86.3	82.5	88.7	79.6	83.0
Sept. 15	88.2	82.4	86.9	86.9	83.3	89.7	79.5	82.9
Dec. 15	87.7	82.0	86.3	85.4	82.8	88.8	79.0	82.9

Date	East South Central—Contd.	West South Central		Mountain	Pacific			
	Mobile	Houston	New Orleans	Denver	Los Angeles	Portland, Oreg.	San Francisco	Seattle
1926—June	103.8	99.9	100.0	101.2	96.7	99.4	101.0	101.2
December	104.0	100.4	101.0	100.2	96.9	99.1	101.1	100.6
1927—June	103.6	98.3	101.2	100.7	97.0	98.9	101.3	101.6
December	102.4	98.6	99.9	96.4	95.5	97.3	100.5	98.8
1928—June	101.4	96.7	98.8	95.9	93.8	95.7	99.5	98.4
December	101.8	97.6	99.6	96.3	95.1	96.3	100.8	98.6
1929—June	101.0	97.4	98.3	96.6	94.1	95.1	100.0	99.2
December	101.6	98.6	98.9	96.7	94.0	95.8	100.3	99.6
1930—June	99.9	96.1	96.7	95.5	91.7	95.0	98.2	98.8
December	95.5	91.3	92.6	91.1	88.1	89.6	94.9	93.4
1931—June	88.9	86.0	85.1	86.5	82.4	85.5	89.7	90.4
December	85.3	83.4	84.5	82.9	80.7	82.9	86.8	87.3
1932—June	79.1	76.2	79.3	78.2	75.5	77.4	82.3	82.0
December	77.0	72.2	77.6	75.5	73.1	75.2	80.6	78.6
1933—June	74.9	71.6	75.4	74.5	69.8	72.7	78.6	78.1
December	79.2	75.1	79.1	76.1	72.5	74.4	81.7	79.2
1934—June	79.1	75.8	79.1	77.8	72.1	75.5	82.4	79.6
Nov. 15	81.0	78.3	81.0	79.0	74.2	77.2	84.4	80.9
1935—Mar. 15	82.2	79.3	82.0	81.2	75.5	78.8	84.7	82.1
July 15	81.7	78.2	81.9	81.2	74.6	78.8	83.1	82.3
Oct. 15	82.1	79.4	81.4	80.8	74.8	79.3	83.9	82.2
1936—Jan. 15	81.7	80.3	81.7	81.5	75.4	80.7	84.4	83.6
Apr. 15	81.0	79.5	80.8	81.1	74.7	80.8	83.9	83.2
July 15	82.7	80.9	82.2	83.0	75.2	82.0	84.4	84.1
Sept. 15	82.2	81.5	82.6	83.4	76.3	81.9	84.7	84.5
Dec. 15	82.1	81.9	83.0	83.1	77.1	82.5	84.8	84.8
1937—Mar. 15	84.2	83.2	84.0	85.0	79.8	85.0	86.7	87.3
June 15	84.9	82.8	84.2	85.9	79.4	85.6	87.4	88.1
Sept. 15	85.1	84.0	85.2	85.8	79.5	85.9	88.5	88.6
Dec. 15	84.1	83.9	84.4	85.4	79.2	85.0	89.1	88.5

COST OF LIVING IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES [1]

THE principal index numbers of the cost of living (official and unofficial) published in the different countries are given in the following table. Index numbers of the principal groups of expenditure (food, heating and lighting, clothing, rent, etc.) which go to make up the general index numbers will be found in the Year-Book of Labor Statistics, 1937, published by the International Labor Office.

The original base of the indexes differs from country to country. The table presented below gives the same index numbers recalculated by the International Labor Office on the uniform base, 1929=100. This change of base has been effected by simply dividing the index for each date by the corresponding index for 1929 (annual average) and multiplying the quotient by 100. This procedure may perhaps give rise to some slight inaccuracies, owing to the methods by which many of the indexes are compiled, but these errors are at most very slight, except when the fluctuations of the indexes reach a certain amplitude. For a few countries, where data for 1929 were not available, the year nearest to 1929 has been taken as base; in these cases the figures are printed in italics.

These index numbers, even when reduced to a common base, cannot be used to compare the level of the cost of living in the different countries, but only its fluctuations. But even the fluctuations of the different index numbers are far from having the same significance, owing to the numerous divergences in the methods of compilation of the series (for example, the geographical scope of the indexes; the groups represented in the general index and the articles included in each group; the weights attached to the various articles and groups; the statistical basis for the determination of these weights; the extent to which they are representative of the consumption of more or less extensive or clearly determined social classes and the date to which they relate; the method of calculating average prices, group indexes, and the general index, etc.). International comparisons cannot therefore be more than approximate.

[1] Text and table from International Labor Review, Geneva, October 1937, p. 565, and January 1938, p. 118.

Indexes of Cost of Living for Specified Periods for the United States and Certain Foreign Countries [1]

[Series recalculated by International Labor Office on base 1929=100; [2] *a*=food; *b*=heating and lighting; *c*=clothing; *d*=rent; *e*=miscellaneous]

Country	Argentina	Australia	Austria	Belgium	Brazil	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile	China			Czechoslovakia	Danzig
Towns and localities	Buenos Aires	30	Vienna	59	Rio de Janeiro	12-67	60	Santiago	Peiping	Shanghai	Tientsin	Prague	Danzig
Original base (=100)	Oct. 1933	1923-27	July 1914	1921	1928-29	1914	1926	Mar. 1928	1927	1926	1926	July 1914	July 1913
Composition of index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-d*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1927	100	97	96	93	102	96	99	[3]	94	99	91	100	98
1928	99	98	97	95	100	98	99	[4] 98	95	95	95	101	99
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	[5] 100	100
1930	101	95	100	104	91	92	99	99	103	113	103	98	95
1931	87	85	96	93	87	80	90	98	90	117	98	93	88
1932	78	81	97	84	88	73	82	104	86	110	91	92	80
1933	83	78	95	83	87	68	78	130	76	99	80	91	77
1934	78	80	95	79	94	64	79	130	75	98	78	90	76
1935	83	81	95	80	99	60	79	132	81	99	86	92	85
1936	91	83	94	85	114	57	81	144	94	105	98	93	93
1937—Mar.	92	[6] 84	94	90	119	58	82	152	105	108	108	94	97
June	95	[6] 85	95	90	-------	58	83	164	98	110	104	95	98
Sept.	92	[6] 85	94	95	-------	59	84	169	------	137	------	95	98
Dec.	-------	------	94	95	-------	------	------	------	------	155	------	--------	98

Country	Denmark	Egypt	Estonia	Finland	France		Germany	Great Britain and N. Ireland	Greece	Hungary	India		
Towns and localities	100	Cairo	Tallinn	21	Paris	45	72	509	44	Budapest	Bombay	Ahmedabad	Rangoon
Original base (=100)	1931	Jan. 1913-July 1914	1913	Jan.-June 1914	1914	1930	1913-1914	July 1914	Dec. 1914	1913	July 1914	Aug. 1926-July 1927	1931
Composition of index	*a-e*	*a, c-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-d*	*a-d*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1927	102	101	90	99	92	[3]	96	102	93	95	103	[4] 102	[3]
1928	101	101	96	101	93	[3]	[5] 99	101	97	100	99	99	[3]
1929	100	100	100	100	100	[3]	100	100	100	100	100	100	[3]
1930	95	98	89	92	105	100	96	96	88	91	92	90	[3]
1931	89	91	86	85	102	*97*	88	90	[5] 100	86	74	77	100
1932	89	87	80	84	95	*91*	78	88	*106*	83	73	78	*98*
1933	93	83	75	82	94	*87*	77	85	*114*	77	69	74	*91*
1934	96	84	74	80	93	*83*	79	86	*116*	76	65	73	*87*
1935	99	86	75	81	87	*78*	80	87	*117*	78	[10] 100	73	*90*
1936	100	86	84	81	91	*86*	81	89	*121*	82	*101*	73	*88*
1937—Mar.	103	85	88	[7] 85	[6] 104	[6] *97*	81	92	*130*	87	*104*	75	*88*
June	104	84	89	[5] 86	[6] 109	[6] *99*	81	95	*132*	87	*105*	78	*89*
Sept.	105	85	89	[5] 89	[6] 113	[6] *104*	81	96	*131*	88	*108*	79	*88*
Dec.	------	--------	------	-------	[6] 118	[6] *110*	81	97	*132*	88	*107*	-------	------

See footnotes at end of table.

Indexes of Cost of Living for Specified Periods for the United States and Certain Foreign Countries [1]—Continued

[Series recalculated by International Labor Office on base 1929=100;[2] *a*=food; *b*=heating and lighting; *c*=clothing; *d*=rent; *e*=miscellaneous]

Country	Irish Free State	Italy	Japan		Latvia	Lithuania	Luxemburg	Netherlands	Netherlands Indies	New Zealand	Norway	Palestine	Peru
Towns and localities	105	50	13	Tokyo	Riga	104	9	Amsterdam	Java and Madura	4–25	31	3	Lima
Original base (=100)	July 1914	June 1928	July 1914	July 1914	1930	1913	1914	Oct. 1923–Sept. 1924	1913	1926–1930	July 1914	Jan. 1922	1912
Composition of index	*a–e*	*a–e*	*a–e*	*a, c, e*	*a–e*	*a–e*	*a–c, e*	*a–e*	*a, b, e*	*a–e*	*a–e*	*a, b, e*	*a, c–e*
1927	99	100	(3)	104	(3)	106	89	100	101	100	112	114	110
1928	99	98	(3)	102	(3)	102	93	101	95	100	[5] 104	107	103
1929	**100**	**100**	(3)	**100**	(3)	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930	97	97	(3)	86	**100**	89	102	96	97	98	97	89	96
1931	92	87	[4] *98*	75	*91*	83	91	90	65	90	92	80	90
1932	89	83	**100**	75	*79*	71	79	84	48	84	90	82	86
1933	86	80	*103*	80	*76*	61	79	83	39	79	89	79	84
1934	87	76	*106*	82	*72*	57	76	83	39	81	89	80	85
1935	89	77	*110*	84	*73*	50	74	81	41	83	91	79	86
1936	91	83	*113*	88	*73*	51	75	79	38	86	93	84	90
1937—Mar	[6] 95	87	*116*	94	*72*	56	77	80	41	90	97	88	95
June	[6] 95	92	*117*	94	*84*	56	80	82	43	91	100	85	97
Sept	[6] 97	95	*119*	98	*82*	56	81	83	46	93	102	87	97
Dec	[6] 101	------	------	101	------	------	81	83	------	------	103	85	99

Country	Poland	Portugal	Rumania	Southern Rhodesia	Spain	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	Union of South Africa	United States B. L. S.	Yugoslavia	
Towns and localities	Warsaw	Whole country	20	6	Madrid	49	34	Istanbul	9	32–51	Belgrade	3 (Croatia and Slavonia)
Original base=(100)	1928	June 1914	1913	1914	1914	July 1914	June 1914	Jan.–June 1914	1914	1923–1925	1926	July 1914
Composition of index	*a–e*	*a, b, e*	*a–d*	*a, b, d*	*a, b, e*	*a–e*	*a–e*	*a–e*	*a–e*	*a–e*	*a–c, e*	*a–e*
1927	98	(3)	90	95	104	101	99	(3)	100	101	103	(3)
1928	99	(3)	97	98	97	101	100	(3)	100	100	99	[4] 97
1929	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	100
1930	93	95	99	97	103	97	98	92	98	98	92	92
1931	85	84	[5] **100**	96	107	94	93	87	94	89	87	85
1932	77	83	*84*	92	103	[5] 92	86	85	90	80	81	77
1933	70	83	*77*	88	100	91	81	76	88	76	79	66
1934	66	83	*74*	87	102	91	80	75	89	79	75	61
1935	63	84	*85*	86	99	92	80	69	88	81	74	60
1936	60	86	------	86	------	93	81	70	88	82	74	61
1937—March	64	103	------	87	------	95	85	71	90	84	74	64
June	64	108	------	87	------	95	85	69	91	85	78	66
September	65	107	------	87	------	97	85	70	91	85	79	65
December	64	------	------	------	------	------	86	------	------	82	------	68

[1] Table from International Labor Review, October 1937 (pp. 565–569) and January 1938 (pp. 118–122).
[2] Except for series in italics which are on original base, or recalculated on nearest possible year to 1929.
[3] No indexes computed.
[4] Average calculated for a period less than 1 year.
[5] New or revised series beginning with this year.
[6] Quarterly averages computed in February, May, August, and November.
[7] April.
[8] July.
[9] October.
[10] New index based on family budget inquiry of 1932–33.

Labor Turn-Over

LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, DECEMBER 1937

THE LAY-OFF rate in factories showed a marked increase in December, as indicated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics' survey of labor turn-over. The rate rose from 5.99 in November to 7.77 per 100 employees in December, the highest rate recorded in any month since 1929. Fewer employees left their jobs voluntarily or were discharged during December than in the previous month, as indicated by the fact that the quit rate declined from 0.72 to 0.60 and the discharge rate from 0.16 to 0.14 per 100 employees during the period.

In a few industries, such as boots and shoes and woolen goods, employees were rehired as operations were resumed. The accession rate for all manufacturing industries accordingly showed a moderate rise from 1.79 in November to 2.12 per 100 employees in December.

Compared with the corresponding month in 1936 decreases were shown in the quit and discharge rates. The lay-off rate increased from 2.14 to 7.77 and the total separation rate from 3.41 to 8.51 per 100 employees. The accession rate declined from 4.41 in December 1936 to 2.12 in December 1937.

All Manufacturing

The Bureau of Labor Statistics survey of labor turn-over covers more than 5,000 representative manufacturing establishments, which in December employed more than 2,450,000 workers. The rates represent the number of changes in personnel per 100 employees on the pay rolls during the month.

The rates shown in table 1 are compiled from reports received from representative plants in 144 industries. In the 20 industries for which separate rates are shown (see table 2) reports were received from representative plants employing at least 25 percent of the workers in each industry.

Table 1 shows the total separation rate classified into quit, discharge, and lay-off rates and the accession rate for each month of 1936 and for 1937 for manufacturing as a whole. The average monthly rates for 1936 and 1937 are also presented.

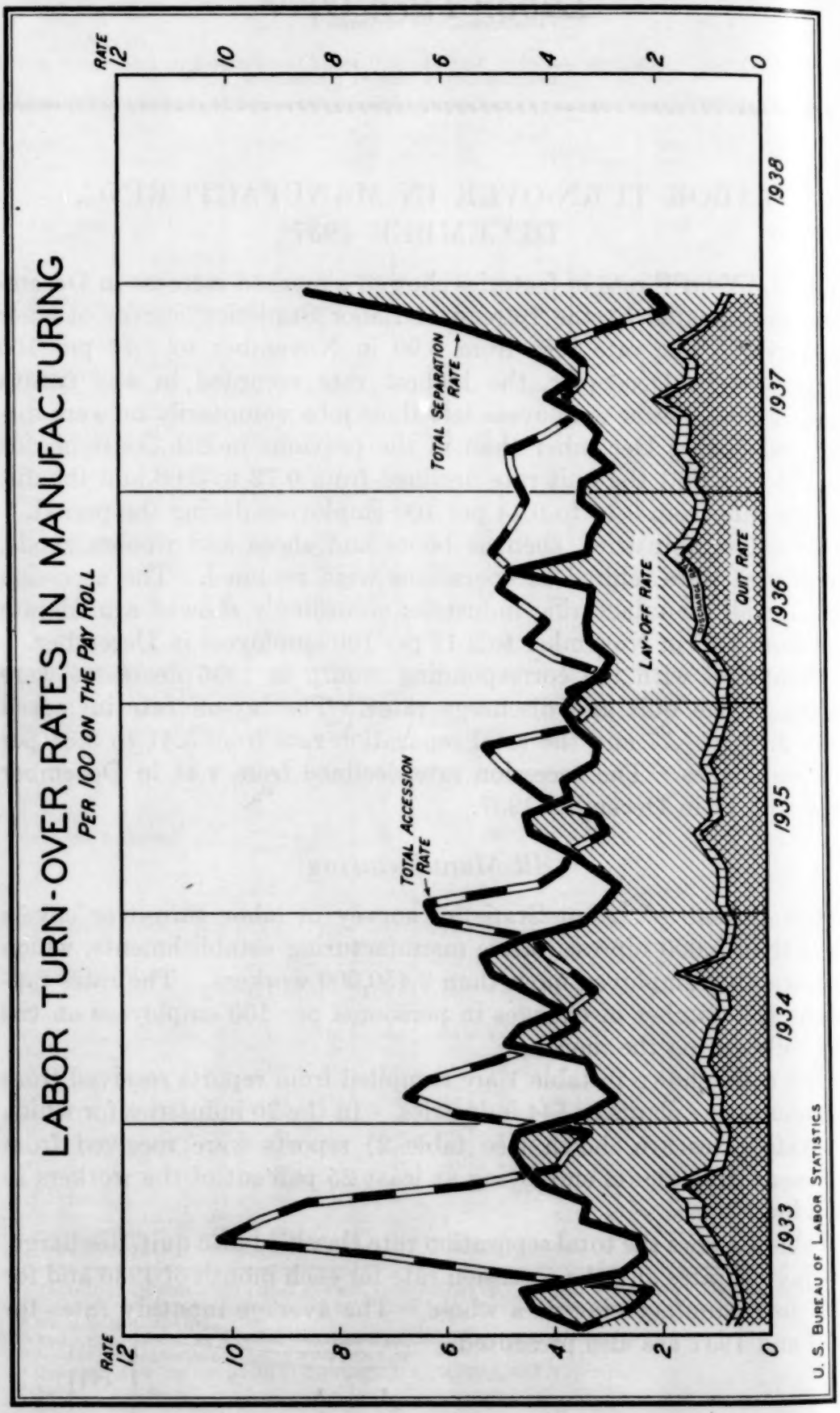

LABOR TURN-OVER RATES IN MANUFACTURING
PER 100 ON THE PAY ROLL
RATE
12
10
8
6
4
2
0
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
1938
TOTAL ACCESSION RATE
TOTAL SEPARATION RATE
LAY-OFF RATE
DISCHARGE
QUIT RATE
U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Representative Factories in 144 Industries*

Class of rate and year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Average
Quit rate:													
1937	1.27	1.19	1.43	1.38	1.37	1.89	1.25	1.23	1.59	1.05	0.72	0.60	1.25
1936	.71	.68	.86	1.16	1.06	1.13	1.15	1.23	1.57	1.29	1.13	1.05	1.09
Discharge rate:													
1937	.21	.22	.24	.23	.21	.19	.21	.19	.19	.19	.16	.14	.20
1936	.20	.17	.19	.21	.20	.23	.23	.27	.26	.24	.21	.22	.22
Lay-off rate: [1]													
1937	1.90	1.44	1.53	1.48	1.79	1.94	2.06	2.57	2.84	4.45	5.99	7.77	2.98
1936	2.66	2.21	1.83	1.92	2.06	1.92	1.84	3.23	1.47	1.72	1.70	2.14	2.06
Total separation rate:													
1937	3.38	2.85	3.20	3.09	3.37	4.02	3.52	3.99	4.62	5.69	6.87	8.51	4.43
1936	3.57	3.06	2.88	3.29	3.32	3.28	3.22	4.73	3.30	3.25	3.04	3.41	3.37
Accession rate:													
1937	4.60	4.71	4.74	4.04	3.56	3.69	3.36	3.36	3.78	2.84	1.79	2.12	3.55
1936	3.65	2.95	3.97	4.46	4.05	4.49	4.94	4.72	5.09	4.83	4.60	4.41	4.35

[1] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

Twenty Industries

Detailed turn-over rates for 20 selected manufacturing industries are listed in table 2, which gives the number of quits, discharges, and lay-offs, total separations, and total accessions per 100 employees in reporting firms in December and November 1937 and December 1936.

TABLE 3.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Specified Industries*

Class of rates	Dec. 1937	Nov. 1937	Dec. 1936	Dec. 1937	Nov. 1937	Dec. 1936	Dec. 1937	Nov. 1937	Dec. 1936
	Automobiles and bodies			Automobile parts			Boots and shoes		
Quit	0.55	0.63	1.80	0.45	0.70	2.18	0.98	0.62	0.88
Discharge	.09	.14	.30	.14	.18	.63	.14	.10	.20
Lay-off	12.77	11.09	2.07	23.09	13.71	1.89	4.29	8.36	2.59
Total separation	13.41	11.86	4.17	23.68	14.59	4.70	5.41	9.08	3.67
Accession	2.60	2.96	9.82	1.85	2.13	9.15	8.57	2.75	6.58
	Brick, tile, and terra cotta			Cigars and cigarettes			Cotton manufacturing		
Quit	1.06	0.62	0.94	0.79	1.36	1.40	0.74	0.81	1.22
Discharge	.15	.14	.18	.12	.12	.11	.17	.15	.24
Lay-off	17.18	10.22	7.88	7.91	.88	6.43	5.50	5.62	1.02
Total separation	18.39	10.98	9.00	8.82	2.36	7.94	6.41	6.58	2.48
Accession	1.79	3.62	3.79	1.58	1.45	1.93	1.78	1.64	3.53
	Electrical machinery			Foundries and machine shops			Furniture		
Quit	0.57	0.55	0.86	0.33	0.51	1.13	0.49	0.71	1.32
Discharge	.13	.22	.22	.17	.18	.31	.21	.19	.37
Lay-off	9.65	5.33	1.18	6.25	5.93	1.12	8.85	11.16	5.47
Total separation	10.35	6.10	2.26	6.75	6.62	2.56	9.55	12.06	7.16
Accession	.94	.83	3.74	.99	1.07	5.25	3.09	3.06	3.13

TABLE 3.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Specified Industries*—Con.

Class of rates	Dec. 1937	Nov. 1937	Dec. 1936	Dec. 1937	Nov. 1937	Dec. 1936	Dec. 1937	Nov. 1937	Dec. 1936
	Hardware			Iron and steel			Knit goods		
Quit	0.57	0.50	0.87	0.53	1.00	1.01	0.62	1.00	0.99
Discharge	.15	.12	.10	.05	.04	.09	.08	.10	.07
Lay-off	9.21	5.85	1.17	5.41	6.68	.54	4.67	3.21	3.15
Total separation	9.93	6.47	2.14	5.99	7.72	1.64	5.37	4.31	4.21
Accession	.31	.38	5.08	.46	1.05	2.85	1.15	1.66	1.92
	Men's clothing			Petroleum refining			Radios and phonographs		
Quit	0.60	0.68	0.79	0.26	0.28	0.45	0.83	1.06	(1)
Discharge	.03	.06	.06	.18	.06	.05	.17	.17	(1)
Lay-off	9.07	10.03	3.55	2.67	2.70	1.52	20.05	19.37	(1)
Total separation	9.70	10.77	4.40	3.11	3.04	2.02	21.05	20.60	(1)
Accession	8.26	1.91	5.05	1.26	1.95	1.88	1.25	1.32	(1)
	Rayon			Rubber tires			Sawmills		
Quit	0.43	0.57	0.58	0.56	0.81	0.83	2.20	1.07	1.06
Discharge	.75	.13	.38	.05	.06	.10	.14	.25	.27
Lay-off	13.11	4.42	.90	5.51	7.41	.28	15.37	13.00	5.40
Total separation	14.29	5.12	1.86	6.12	8.28	1.21	17.71	14.32	6.73
Accession	.49	1.44	1.45	.72	.66	2.61	4.14	2.88	5.46
	Slaughtering and meat packing			Woolen and worsted goods					
Quit	0.47	0.64	1.45	0.60	0.59	0.93			
Discharge	.19	.20	.32	.04	.07	.13			
Lay-off	8.13	7.64	11.16	6.01	13.07	.77			
Total separation	8.79	8.48	12.93	6.65	13.73	1.83			
Accession	8.21	7.74	7.20	7.17	2.60	7.30			

[1] No data available.

UNION SCALES OF WAGES AND HOURS OF MOTOR-TRUCK DRIVERS, MAY 15, 1937 [a]

THE average wage rate for union motortruck drivers increased 6.6 percent between May 15, 1936, and May 15, 1937, according to reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from union officials in 60 cities.[1] The average hourly rate in 1937 was 76.7 cents; in 1936 it was 71.9 cents.[2]

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Union Motortruck Drivers, by Hourly Rates, 1936 and 1937* [1]

Classified hourly rates	Percentage of members with classified hourly rates	
	1937	1936
Under 30 cents	[3]	[3]
30 and under 35 cents	0.2	0.3
35 and under 40 cents	.3	.2
40 and under 45 cents	1.6	1.9
45 and under 50 cents	.9	1.3
50 and under 60 cents	5.8	15.4
60 and under 70 cents	27.1	31.5
70 and under 80 cents	27.0	19.7
80 and under 90 cents	15.5	15.8
90 cents and under $1	9.2	9.3
$1 and under $1.10	11.3	3.5
$1.10 and over	1.1	1.0
Average hourly rate	$0.767	$0.719

[1] Based on comparable quotations. See text footnote 1. [3] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

More than half the members had rates between 60 and 80 cents in both years. In 1937 the proportion having rates between 70 and 80

[a] Truck drivers' rates in each city covered in this survey may be obtained in pamphlet form by writing to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[1] The percentage change and the averages in this report are based on aggregates computed from 747 comparable quotations furnished by unions reporting for both years. These quotations covered 126,716 members. The membership weights in the aggregates used in both years are those reported for the second year. Including the 30,731 members for whom no 1936 quotations were received, the 1937 average rate was $0.750, and the average hours per week were 47.7.

The term "truck drivers" covers a heterogeneous group of occupations, such as drivers of building and excavating trucks, coal trucks, ice trucks, general hauling and transfer trucks, delivery trucks of various and miscellaneous commodities, and express and freight trucks. In each of these occupations different types and sizes of trucks are likely to be used. Every truck-driving occupation, and every size and type of truck usually has a different wage rate. Furthermore there is a great variation between cities as to commodities handled, types of trucks, and the terminology used to describe these different occupations. For these reasons it is impossible to make an intercity classification by types. The data on all truck driving in all cities studied, therefore, are treated as one trade in this study.

[2] The 1936 average rate cited here differs from the $0.727 average given in last year's report. (See Monthly Labor Review, May 1937.) The latter is an average of the rates of all the union members reported for 1936, whereas the $0.719 rate is based on comparable quotations furnished in 1936 and 1937. (See footnote 1, above.)

cents per hour, however, increased from 20 to 27 percent, while the proportion between 60 and 70 cents decreased from 32 to 27 percent. More than half the members who had rates of less than 60 cents an hour in 1936 moved into higher brackets in 1937. In 1936 less than 5 percent and in 1937 over 12 percent of the members had rates of $1.00 and over.

Nearly two-thirds of the union members covered in both years' studies received rate increases, while less than 1 percent had decreases. There was no change in hourly rates for 34 percent of the members.

Total number of quotations comparable with 1936	747
Number providing increases	441
Number providing decreases	11
Number with no change	295
Total number of members covered by comparable quotations	126,716
Percent affected by increases	65.1
Percent affected by decreases	0.9
Percent with no change	34.0

The largest number (166) of wage-rate changes between May 15, 1936, and May 15, 1937, were for increases of from 5 to 10 percent. Such changes affected 27 percent of the union members covered in both years. Seventeen percent of the members received increases amounting to between 10 and 15 percent of their 1936 rates, while over 10 percent had increases of from 15 to 20 percent. Increases of over 20 percent were reported in 43 quotations which covered 3.5 percent of the members. (See table 2.)

TABLE 2.—*Percent of Change in Union Wage Rates of Motortruck Drivers May 15, 1936, to May 15, 1937*

Classified percentage change	Number of quotations showing—		Percentage of total members affected by—	
	Increase	Decrease	Increase	Decrease
Less than 5 percent	73	4	7.3	0.3
5 and under 10 percent	166	3	27.2	.5
10 and under 15 percent	110	1	17.9	(1)
15 and under 20 percent	49	2	10.1	(1)
20 percent and over	43	1	3.5	.1

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Union Scales of Hours

The average full-time hours in 1936 were 48.2, and in 1937 they were 47.8 per week. (See table 3.) Almost two-thirds of the members had scales of 48 hours per week in both years. The proportion of members having weekly hours in excess of 48, however, decreased from 19 percent in 1936 to 12 percent in 1937. On the other hand, the proportion of members having a workweek of over 44 but less than 48 hours increased from 3 percent in 1936 to 10 percent in 1937.

TABLE 3.—*Distribution of Union Motortruck Drivers, by Hours Per Week, 1936 and 1937* [1]

Classified hours per week	Percentage of members with classified hours	
	1937	1936
Less than 40 hours	(2)	0.1
40 hours	10.9	11.2
Over 40 and under 44 hours	(2)	(2)
44 hours	2.5	1.8
Over 44 and under 48 hours	10.1	3.1
48 hours	64.8	64.7
Over 48 and under 54 hours	1.6	7.8
54 hours	5.6	5.2
Over 54 and under 60 hours	1.4	1.4
60 hours	2.9	4.5
Over 60 hours	.2	.2
Average hours per week	47.8	48.2

[1] Based on comparable quotations. See text footnote 1.

[2] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

For 83 percent of the members there were no changes in hours between May 15, 1936, and May 15, 1937. About 16 percent had their hours reduced and slightly over 1 percent had increases in hours.

Total number of quotations comparable with 1936	747
Number providing increases	26
Number providing decreases	76
Number with no change	645
Total number of members covered by comparable quotations	126,716
Percentage affected by increases	1.2
Percentage affected by decreases	15.8
Percentage with no change	83.0

One-hour reductions in the workweek were more frequent than any other changes in weekly hours. Eighteen quotations, affecting 6.4 percent of the total membership, showed this amount of change. Ten quotations, showing decreases of 3 hours per week, however, affected nearly the same proportion (6.2 percent) of the membership. Sixteen quotations, affecting 1.5 percent of the total members, indicated reductions of 12 to 13 hours.

The few increases in weekly hours ranged from one-half to 18 hours per week. Ten quotations showed increases of 8 hours, but these affected only 0.4 percent of the total members. Table 4 shows the number of quotations reporting each amount of hour change and the percentages of the membership affected.

TABLE 4.—*Amount of Change in Union Hour Scales of Motortruck Drivers May 15, 1936, to May 15, 1937*

Amount of change in hours per week	Number of quotations showing—		Percentage of total members affected by—	
	Increase	Decrease	Increase	Decrease
½ hour	7		(1)	
1 hour		18		6.4
1½ hours		3		.6
2 hours		1		(1)
2½ hours		3		.1
3 hours	1	10	0.1	6.2
4 hours	2	9	.3	.3
5 hours		1		(1)
6 hours	2	6	.4	.4
8 hours	10	8	.4	.3
9 hours		1		(1)
12 hours		9		1.3
Over 12 hours	4	7	(1)	.2

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Overtime and Extra Pay Provisions

Time and a half was specified as the overtime rate in 61 percent of the quotations, which covered 58 percent of the total membership reported. Over 10 percent of the membership had an overtime rate of time and a third, while specific rates, higher than the regular rates, were provided for 20 percent of the members. Straight pay for overtime was reported in 138 quotations covering 6.4 percent of the drivers included in the survey.

Overtime work was entirely prohibited in only 14 reports applying to 2 percent of the membership. In a number of agreements, however, overtime was restricted to emergency or necessary work. Restrictions as to the amount of overtime that may be worked in a day or week were not usually provided. A few agreements specified that the initial overtime rate should be further increased after a given amount of overtime had been worked.

TABLE 5.—*Overtime Rates Provided for Motortruck Drivers in Union Agreements, May 15, 1937* [1]

Overtime rate provided in union agreements	Number of quotations	Percentage of members covered
No overtime rate provided	32	1.9
Straight time	138	6.4
Time and one-third	90	10.7
Time and one-half	668	57.9
Double time	18	.8
Specified amounts, not a multiple of the regular rate	123	20.3
Overtime prohibited	14	2.0

[1] Based on all quotations received for 1937.

Provisions of Union Agreements [3]

The 8-hour working day prevailed in most of the union agreements. Some agreements provide as few as 5 hours or as many as 14 hours for certain drivers, and some provide that more hours may be worked in the summer.

In even fewer agreements were there exceptions to the 6-day week. In a few agreements, the workweek of certain classes of drivers was 5, 5½, or 7 days. A uniform 5-day week was provided for in some agreements. In a few cases a 5-day week prevails during the summer while a 6-day week is worked during the rest of the year.

Most of the agreements establish a definite range during which work is to be performed. The starting time is commonly 8 a. m., though work may begin as early as 7 a. m. in a number of cases. Except for milk and bakery delivery drivers, earlier starting times are rare. Finishing time, except for the latter group of workers, is generally between 5 and 6 p. m. Frequently earlier starting times are provided for the summer months and later starts are sometimes provided for Saturday work.

Sunday and holiday work.—Work on Sundays is prohibited in only a few of these agreements. While holiday work is more frequently prohibited, the restriction is general only for Labor Day. Occasionally holiday work is prohibited only after a certain hour, usually 9 or 10 a. m. In some agreements a union permit must be secured for any holiday work; in others certain emergency deliveries may be made as long as regular work is not performed. In a few cases, holidays which fall on Saturday or Monday are not to be observed.

Although Sunday work is generally paid for at the usual overtime rate, a higher rate (usually double time) is paid for holiday work in a number of cases. A minimum amount of pay, usually 4 hours, must often be given if any work is performed on such days. Holidays with pay are sometimes granted, but usually for special holidays only, or if at least 3 days have been worked during the week of the holiday.

The holidays generally observed are New Year's, Memorial Day, Fourth of July, Labor Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas. Washington's Birthday, Armistice Day, and election day are additional holidays frequently observed, while Columbus Day and Lincoln's Birthday are less frequently considered holidays. Less than these 6 holidays are observed in only a few cases, the minimum number of holidays being 3. Religious and local holidays are also covered in a number of agreements.

Extra-pay provisions.—The most frequent extra-pay provision is that requiring the payment of a minimum amount if a driver begins work, but is sent home before the regular day's work is completed. Generally at least half a day's pay must be given, with full pay if the driver

[1] Other than wages and hours discussed above.

starts the afternoon's work. In a few cases a full day's pay must be given for any day on which work is begun. When the cause of the temporary lay-off is adverse weather conditions, this minimum payment need not be made.

A certain payment is also specified for drivers ordered to report to work when no work is given. This is usually 2 hours' pay but in some cases half or a full day's pay. When a driver is sent out on an overnight trip, the employer is usually required to cover whatever expenses are incurred for meals and lodging. Some agreements specify the amount to be furnished for such expenses, varying from $1.50 to $3.50 per day. A meal allowance is sometimes granted for trips which are unusually long but which do not involve being away from home over night.

Other types of extra pay sometimes provided in these agreements are a bonus in addition to overtime when a driver is called back after having completed his day's work and a provision for regular pay when a driver is required to wait beyond the usual time to receive his wages. There are also numerous provisions covering liability for damaged or undelivered goods, for unusually heavy loads, etc.

Union status.—Union membership is usually a condition of employment. Owners who do any driving must also be members of the union. About one-fourth of the agreements include the check-off system of collecting union dues, but in some cases only when individual members authorize the deduction. In other agreements the company deducts the amount of back dues when requested by the business agent of the union.

These agreements usually designate the union as the source of supply for replacements or additions to the permanent staff. The union is granted a reasonable amount of time, sometimes specified as 24 or 48 hours, in which to furnish help. If there is a shortage, preference must usually be given to members of the employers' association which is a party to the agreement. In a few agreements union membership is not required. In such cases it may be provided that members are to be given preference or that there is to be no discrimination for union membership. These agreements do not establish the check-off or designate the union as the source of supply of additional workers.

About half of the agreements require that temporary workers shall carry a union permit or be selected with the approval of the union. In the others, the company is permitted to select freely its temporary workers. In all instances temporary workers must join the union within a given time, which varies from 1 to 30 days.

Seniority and discharge.—One week's notice must be given in a number of agreements when a driver is quitting or is to be laid off, although in a few cases 2 weeks' notice is required. Failure to give the required

notice when quitting causes the driver in many cases to forfeit a week's pay. Similar notice is required for discharge for causes other than intoxication or dishonesty. Other reasons for discharge are not usually specified, except that the discharge must be for good cause and must not involve union discrimination. The company generally agrees to discharge men expelled from the union, the union in turn agreeing to consider the expulsion of any driver discharged for cause.

No single method of sharing work during dull periods predominates in these agreements. Overtime may be prohibited, hours reduced, or available work equally divided among regular workers, while in some cases rotation of opportunities for work is followed. In a number of agreements seniority is to be the guide in lay-offs and reemployment, seniority rights to continue through a lay-off of not more than a specified number of weeks. Seniority rights also hold through leave of absence for sickness or union duties, provided that the leave does not exceed from 3 to 6 months.

Vacations.—Vacations with pay are granted in nearly a fourth of these agreements, the length of vacations being about equally divided between 1 and 2 weeks. Usually a year of service is required before a driver is eligible for a vacation. The acceptance of pay in lieu of a vacation is permitted only to drivers leaving the service of the employer. The period during which vacations must be taken is frequently specified, but preference is accorded to individual drivers in accordance with seniority. In a very few cases drivers have the right to take annual vacations of a designated length, but receive no pay while off duty.

Other provisions.—Stoppages of work are prohibited during the life of the agreements except that in some cases sympathetic strikes are not to be considered violations of the agreements. Sometimes sympathetic strikes are permissible only when other locals of the drivers' union are involved.

The learning or probation period may vary from a few days to several months, the longer periods being required on the more complicated delivery routes. Somewhat lower pay is provided during this period.

When uniforms are required, the company usually assumes the full cost, with an additional allowance for maintenance. In a few cases the cost of uniforms is shared equally by the company and the worker. Less frequently, a maximum price to the employee is set in the agreement and the maximum number of uniforms he is expected to have is stipulated. The employer usually assumes the obligation of paying all traffic fines caused by the drivers' attempts to maintain fixed time schedules. Drivers required to furnish bond are reimbursed by their employers for the expenses incidental to such bonding.

SALARIES PAID BY CALIFORNIA MUNICIPALITIES, 1937 [1]

THE HIGHEST monthly municipal-government salary as of June 1, 1937, in 6 California cities of over 50,000 population was $1,000, paid to the city manager of a municipality with a population of 284,000. The monthly salaries of the city attorneys in these municipalities ranged from $350 to $833.33; of city clerks, from $225 to $600; of police captains, from $205 to $300; and of fire captains from $190 to $250. Unskilled laborers were paid from $4 to $5 per day. These and other wage and salary statistics of municipal employees as of the same date are shown in the following table.

Only 2 of the 6 cities reported compensation for mayors—one a city of 82,000 population paying $10 a meeting with a maximum of 4 meetings per month, and the other a city of 1,232,000 population paying $833.33 per month.

The city-council compensation ranged from $5 per meeting with a maximum of four meetings per month to $400 per month.

Monthly Salaries Paid by 6 California Municipalities with Over 50,000 Population, June 1, 1937

Position or occupation	City with population in 1930 of—					
	57,500	76,000	82,000	142,000	284,000	1,232,000
City managers	$600.00	$900.00	$833.33	$750.00	$1,000.00	
City attorneys	[1] 350.00	475.00	350.00	416.66	583.33	$833.33
City clerks	300.00	225.00	225.00	250.00	325.00	600.00
Auditors	300.00	[2] 425.00	250.00	350.00	500.00	600.00
Assessors	([3])	350.00	275.00	250.00	([3])	([3])
Treasurers	([4])	243.00	250.00	260.00	325.00	600.00
Tax collectors	([3])	([5])	([6])	250.00	([3])	([3])
City engineers	350.00	350.00	400.00	450.00	583.33	833.33
Street superintendents	([7])	([7])	([7])	250.00	([7])	475.00
Waterworks superintendents	----	450.00	----	350.00	----	----
Park superintendents	([7])	300.00	230.00	250.00	390.00	450.00
Playground superintendents	([7])	[1] 109.00	[1] 175.00	260.00	475.00	562.50
City judges	350.00	[1] 270.00	383.33	500.00	----	----
Health officers	350.00	350.00	[1] 125.00	375.00	475.00	600.00
Police department:						
Chiefs	330.00	360.00	375.00	356.50	427.50	600.00
Captains	205.00	247.50	275.00	261.44	285.00	300.00
Lieutenant inspectors	----	225.00	240.00	237.68	237.50	250.00
Sergeants	----	202.50	205.00	213.90	209.00	225.00
Patrolmen	160.00–180.00	162.00–180.00	160.00–185.00	190.14	171.00–190.00	170.00–200.00
Fire department:						
Chiefs	330.00	356.00	375.00	356.50	427.50	600.00
Battalion and assistant chiefs	215.00–225.00	225.00–288.00	----	238.00–285.00	----	300.00
Captains	190.00	202.50	205.00	213.90	223.25	250.00
Lieutenants	182.50	----	195.00	----	211.37	----
Operators and engineers	----	184.50	190.00	204.40	209.00	225.00
Hosemen	160.00–175.00	129.60–153.90	160.00–185.00	162.00–190.00	171.00–195.00	170.00–200.00
Unskilled laborers	[8] 5.00	[8] 4.00	[8] 4.00	[8] 4.85	[9] .50–.55	110.00

[1] Part time.
[2] Controller.
[3] County.
[4] Auditor.
[5] Assessor.
[6] Treasurer.
[7] Engineer.
[8] Per day.
[9] Per hour.

[1] League of California Municipalities. Report No. 12: Monthly Salaries Paid in 143 California Cities as of June 1, 1937. San Francisco, 1937.

COLLEGE SALARIES, 1935–36

AN ANALYSIS of the salaries of 25,530 full-time faculty members in 252 colleges and universities for the scholastic year 1935–36 shows great variations in the compensation received. For example, in the 51 land-grant colleges, the median salary for a full-time professor on a 9-months basis was $3,951; but there was a difference of almost $2,000 between the median 9 months' salary in the 5 largest institutions ($4,554) and that in the 5 smallest institutions ($2,606).

The median salary on a 9-month basis, for all professors in the 252 institutions included in the accompanying table was $3,592. However, 132 were receiving $7,000 or more, while 544 were being paid less than $2,000 as full professors.[1]

Salaries for staff members in Negro colleges, including all faculty ranks, ranged from $1,173 to $2,094. These institutions are in the Southern States, and often homes are provided for faculty members at very low rentals.

Median Salaries in 252 Colleges and Universities in the United States, 1935–36

MEDIAN SALARIES

Number and types of colleges	Deans on basis of—		Professors on basis of—		Associate professors on basis of—		Assistant professors on basis of—		Instructors on basis of—	
	9 months	11–12 months	9 months	11–12 months	9 months	11–12 months	9 months	11–12 months	9 months	11–12 months
	Publicly controlled institutions									
51 land-grant	$4,300	$4,859	$3,951	$3,869	$2,973	$3,017	$2,486	$2,574	$1,792	$2,012
5 largest land-grant [1]	5,625	5,375	4,554	4,676	3,396	3,577	2,743	2,938	1,914	2,123
5 smallest land-grant [1]	4,083	3,375	2,606	2,942	2,200	2,714	1,885	2,443	1,553	2,007
17 Negro land-grant	2,062	2,094	1,562	1,795	1,208	1,586	1,328	1,419	1,193	1,173
16 State universities	4,075	3,913	3,564	3,281	2,726	2,827	2,305	2,463	1,803	1,699
15 State colleges	3,125	3,375	2,886	2,797	2,171	2,444	1,869	2,082	1,582	1,578
	Privately controlled institutions									
16 men's colleges	$4,083	$4,375	$3,583	$4,313	$3,000	$3,354	$2,688	$2,792	$2,052	$2,027
38 women's colleges	3,000	4,000	3,150	2,700	3,026	2,228	2,512	2,023	1,785	1,578
7 large universities	4,500	6,563	5,143	5,733	3,625	3,947	2,944	3,051	2,284	2,154
16 medium universities	4,375	5,167	3,950	4,125	3,215	3,198	2,673	2,583	1,811	1,406
76 small colleges	1,594	2,083	1,662	1,879	1,429	1,670	1,375	1,478	1,015	1,190

[1] Not included in the total of 252 institutions, since they are duplicated in the calculations for 51 land-grant institutions.

[1] U. S. Office of Education. Bulletin, 1937, No. 9: College Salaries, 1936. Washington, 1937.

Median Salaries in 252 Colleges and Universities in the United States, 1935–36—Con.

NUMBER OF FACULTY MEMBERS

Number and types of colleges	Deans on basis of—		Professors on basis of—		Associate professors on basis of—		Assistant professors on basis of—		Instructors on basis of—	
	9 months	11–12 months	9 months	11–12 months	9 months	11–12 months	9 months	11–12 months	9 months	11–12 months
	Publicly controlled institutions									
51 land grant	52	379	1,879	1,595	1,045	831	1,658	1,229	2,050	1,215
5 largest land-grant [1]	3	78	489	524	249	272	371	432	309	533
5 smallest land-grant [1]	4	29	51	64	28	28	37	50	99	43
17 Negro land-grant	5	41	30	128	15	58	28	62	95	158
16 State universities	70	91	724	177	425	100	559	120	649	198
15 State colleges	9	32	110	134	128	62	121	143	118	90
	Privately controlled institutions									
16 men's colleges	8	16	66	260	48	150	66	139	69	214
38 women's colleges	24	26	551	150	216	37	302	39	316	58
7 large universities	4	53	301	387	104	254	209	328	337	469
16 medium universities	17	54	410	232	137	113	288	198	308	272
76 small colleges	46	52	608	267	142	80	113	43	269	67
Total 252 institutions [2]	235	744	4,679	3,330	2,260	1,685	3,344	2,301	4,211	2,741

[1] Not included in the total of 252 institutions, since they are duplicated in the calculations for 51 land-grant institutions.

[2] Of the 25,530 full-time staff members in 252 institutions, 14,729 are on a 9-month basis, and 10,801 are on a 11–12-month basis.

FARM WAGE AND LABOR SITUATION, JANUARY 1, 1938

FARM WAGE rates without board averaged $1.61 per day on January 1, 1938, for the country as a whole, with a range among the States from 80 cents in South Carolina to $3 in California. On January 1, 1937, the general average was $1.51 and the range was from 80 cents in South Carolina to $2.70 in California and Connecticut. Monthly wages without board averaged $33.28 on January 1, 1938, as against $31.37 on January 1, 1937, and $28.63 on January 1, 1936. These figures and those in the accompanying tables are from reports of the United States Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

The supply of farm labor on January 1, 1938, was 92 percent of normal and the demand 79.2 percent, as compared with corresponding figures of 91 and 81.7 percent on January 1, 1937.

Table 1 shows average farm wages, supply of and demand for farm labor, and number of persons employed per farm, on January 1, 1938, as compared with January 1, 1936, January 1 and October 1, 1937, and, for wage rates, with the annual average 1910–14.

TABLE 1.—*Average Farm Wage Rates and Employment at Specified Periods*

Item	Annual average, 1910–14	Jan. 1, 1936	Jan. 1, 1937	Oct. 1, 1937	Jan. 1, 1938
Farm wage index	100	94	103	126	111
Farm wage rates:					
Per month, with board	$20.41	$18.54	$20.68	$25.51	$22.18
Per month, without board	$29.09	$28.63	$31.37	$36.71	$33.28
Per day, with board	$1.10	$1.00	$1.10	$1.39	$1.19
Per day, without board	$1.43	$1.37	$1.51	$1.83	$1.61
Supply of and demand for farm labor (percent of normal):					
Supply	.....	96.7	91.0	80.6	92.0
Demand	.....	76.0	81.7	91.7	79.2
Supply as percentage of demand	.....	127.2	111.4	87.9	116.2
Number of persons employed per farm: [1]					
Family labor	.....	1.99	1.94	2.04	1.89
Hired labor	.....	.62	.69	1.10	.67
Combined	.....	2.61	2.63	3.14	2.56

[1] On farms of crop reporters.

Average farm wage rates per month and per day, with board and without board, on January 1, 1937 and 1938, are shown in table 2 by geographic division.

TABLE 2.—*Average Farm Wage Rates on January 1, 1937 and 1938, by Geographic Division*

Geographic division	Per month, with board		Per month, without board		Per day, with board		Per day, without board	
	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938
United States	$20.68	$22.18	$31.37	$33.28	$1.10	$1.19	$1.51	$1.61
New England	29.56	30.78	51.05	52.38	1.67	1.70	2.42	2.51
Middle Atlantic	25.28	27.85	41.34	44.47	1.52	1.72	2.12	2.32
East North Central	24.24	26.75	35.79	39.12	1.38	1.54	1.86	2.04
West North Central	19.77	21.49	30.72	32.56	1.13	1.22	1.62	1.74
South Atlantic	15.85	16.41	23.33	24.23	.82	.86	1.09	1.15
East South Central	15.12	15.74	21.98	22.47	.76	.78	1.00	1.02
West South Central	17.66	18.63	25.82	27.36	.88	.94	1.17	1.24
Mountain	31.01	31.90	45.47	47.09	1.50	1.56	2.03	2.10
Pacific	37.23	42.17	59.45	65.75	1.75	1.99	2.57	2.83

WAGES IN COTTON PICKING, 1937

WAGE RATES for the picking of seed cotton averaged the same in 1937 as in 1936—69 cents per 100 pounds. The rates in 1937 ranged from 60 cents in Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina to 95 cents in California. The following table, taken from Crops and Markets for November 1937, published by the United States Department of Agriculture, shows the average rates for each State and for the United States as a whole in 1929 and in each year from 1934 to 1937.

Average Wage Rates for Picking 100 Pounds of Seed Cotton, 1929 and 1934–37

State	1929	1934	1935	1936	1937	State	1929	1934	1935	1936	1937
All States	$1.06	$0.60	$0.58	$0.69	$0.69	Tennessee	$1.34	$0.65	$0.60	$0.80	$0.70
						Alabama	.92	.55	.50	.60	.60
Virginia	1.15	.65	.65	.70	.75	Mississippi	1.08	.55	.55	.75	.80
North Carolina	1.01	.65	.65	.65	.70	Louisiana	1.01	.55	.55	.65	.70
South Carolina	.81	.50	.50	.55	.60	Texas	1.11	.60	.60	.65	.65
Georgia	.90	.50	.50	.55	.60	Oklahoma	1.22	.75	.70	.75	.75
Florida	1.07	.55	.55	.60	.65	Arkansas	1.06	.60	.55	.75	.70
Illinois	1.15	.75	.75	.90	.70	New Mexico	1.25	.65	.65	.70	.70
Missouri	1.12	.80	.75	.95	.80	Arizona	1.50	.90	.90	1.10	.85
Kansas	1.30	.75	.70	.75	.65	California	1.45	.90	.90	1.00	.95
Kentucky	1.18	.80	.75	.95	.80						

WAGES AND WORKING CONDITIONS OF HARBOR WORKERS AT ROTTERDAM, 1937 [1]

AN AVERAGE increase of about 7 percent was provided for by a new collective agreement between the harbor workers and their employers at Rotterdam, Netherlands, which became effective on October 18, 1937. The rates were to remain in force until January 3, 1938, at which time they were to be increased by another 3 percent, calculated on the old schedule.

The new scale which went into force in October is shown in the following table.

Minimum Weekly Wages Set by Agreement for Harbor Workers, Rotterdam

[Exchange rate of florin, September 1937=55 cents]

Branch of industry and class of workers	Minimum weekly wage	Branch of industry and class of workers	Minimum weekly wage
Regular employees		[2] *Regular employees*—Continued	
Warehousing, forwarding, and Rhine shipping:	*Florins*	Grain factors:	*Florins*
Workers in sheds, etc.[1]	26.00	Foremen	31.60
Crane operators [1]	27.90	Assistant foremen	27.00
Young workers	[3] 9.30 to [3] 26.00		Rate per shift
Stevedoring	[3] 23.70	*Casual employees*	*Florins*
Mechanical enterprises:[4]		Grain superintendents:	
First engineers	29.80	4-hour shift	2.78
Second engineers	27.90	4½-hour shift	3.12
Boatswains	27.90	5½-hour shift [5]	3.82
Crane operators	27.90	Mechanical enterprises:	
Laborers (trimmers, etc.)	26.00	4-hour shift	3.20
Fireman, assistant engineers	26.00	4½-hour shift	3.60
Firemen	23.70	5½-hour shift [5]	4.40
Floating, pneumatic grain elevators:[4]		8½-hour shift	6.40
First engineers	29.80	Other enterprises:	
Second engineers	27.90	4-hour shift	2.45
Boatswains	27.90	4½-hour shift	2.75
Weighers	27.90	5½-hour shift [5]	3.35
Firemen (assistant engineers)	26.00		
Firemen	23.70		
Laborers	26.00		

[1] 1.40 florins per week extra, if working for same employer since Mar. 3, 1924.
[2] According to age.
[3] Guaranteed minimum.
[4] Wages shown include any supplements.
[5] Saturday, 8 a. m. to 1:30 p. m.

[1] Data are from report by Harold D. Clum, American Consul General at Rotterdam, October 23, 1937.

Workers employed by stevedoring firms handling injurious commodities, such as bones, bonemeal, cement, dried fish bones, wet salted hides, asphalt, pitch, etc., are to receive extra compensation varying from 0.23 to 0.32 florin per shift or from 0.46 to 0.64 florin per shift, depending on the nature of the goods.

For harbor workers employed in mechanical enterprises such as stevedoring companies operating loading bridges, transporters, and floating grab cranes for the loading and unloading of coal, ore, and other bulk cargoes, an average 48-hour week is provided. Daily hours may not exceed 8½. Overtime work and work on Saturday afternoon is to be paid for at the rate of 0.95 per hour, and work on Sunday at the rate of 3.00 florins per half shift or part thereof.

For other harbor employees a 48-hour week is provided, and overtime at 0.80 to 1.00 florin per hour and 3.00 per shift on Sunday.

All harbor workers are entitled to an annual paid vacation of at least 2 workdays when employed by the same firm since January 2 of the current year, 4 workdays when employed since July 1 of the past year, and 6 workdays when employed since January 2 of the past year. Casual harbor workers belonging to the "harbor labor reserve" are entitled to an annual vacation depending upon the number of shifts performed during the previous fiscal year, as follows:

	Paid vacation (workdays)
200 to 299 shifts	1
300 to 399 shifts	2
400 to 499 shifts	3
500 shifts or more	4

The compensation paid for each day of vacation is to be equal to the ordinary wage for a morning and afternoon shift.

Employment Offices

ACTIVITIES OF UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, JANUARY 1938

APPLICATIONS for work and registrations for unemployment-compensation benefits brought one of the largest volumes of registrants to United States Employment Offices during January in the history of the public employment service offices.

More than 1½ million applications for work were registered by offices during the month. Over 2¼ million original claims and 2½ million continued claims for benefits were filed through the offices. Despite the great volume of this activity, 135,759 placements in jobs were reported.

The number of applications for work represents the largest volume for any single month since the peak of the registration activity in connection with the Works Progress Administration program. A total of 1,557,388 applications for work were filed, 939,708 representing new applicants (persons not previously registered with the Employment Service), and 617,680 representing renewals of previously registered persons whose applications had become inactive. Men numbered 704,865 of the new applicants and women 234,843.

The procedure for the filing of claims for unemployment-compensation benefits necessitates that claimants must be actively registered in an office of the United States Employment Service. During January, benefit payments were started for the first time in 22 States, their activity representing the first large-scale operations of the unemployment-insurance program. Wisconsin is the only State which had paid benefits before January. The registrations of benefit claimants in these new benefit-paying States as a result accounted in large measure for the striking increase in the volume of employment-service registrations. The increase in such applications became noticeable in December, immediately prior to the beginning of actual unemployment-insurance operations in these States, and reached wholesale proportions during January.

In the 22 new benefit-paying States, new applications registered in January were 135.8 percent greater than the number registered in December, and 329.7 percent greater than the number registered in November. Increased demand for jobs, apart from the requirements of the unemployment-insurance provisions, however, also accounted

for part of the increase in the number of applicants. New applications registered in the 26 nonbenefit-paying States rose 55.4 percent above the level reached in December, and 75.5 percent above the November total.

Tentative reports for 6 weeks, from January 1 through February 12, indicate that 2,450,379 original claims and 4,413,207 continued claims for unemployment-compensation benefits were filed through the Employment Service offices in the benefit-paying States. The filing of these claims for benefits is a separate transaction from the prerequisite registration for employment.

Due to the volume of work carried on in connection with the greatly increased registration load, activity in the placement field suffered curtailment. This was reflected in a decrease in the number of field solicitations of employers to a total of 70,098, the smallest volume reported since February 1936. It is interesting to note that the decline in field visits from December to January was 44.5 percent in the new benefit-paying States, but only 1.3 percent in the nonbenefit-paying States. However, in spite of the reduced activity and the effect of the restricted number of job openings available, 135,759 placements of all types were made, 85,412 representing placements of men, and 50,347 being placements of women.

Placements in private nongovernmental jobs made up the bulk of this activity, 91,876 being reported, 29 percent less than in December. Men were placed in 43,606 of these jobs and women in 48,270. The decline in the number of regular jobs from December to January was much less than in the number of temporary jobs, the January total being 10.7 percent less than the December total for the regular jobs, but 38.3 percent smaller for the temporary jobs.

In addition to private placements the Employment Service made 41,803 placements in public nonrelief employment, practically all being of men, and 2,080 assignments on relief jobs.

The number of active applicants on file in the Employment Service rose by almost a quarter during January, reaching a total of 6,054,616. Applications of 4,752,409 men were on file at the end of the month, a gain of 24.5 percent during the month, and applications of women numbered 1,302,207, a gain of 23.2 percent. The average increase in the active file in the 22 new benefit-paying States during January was 35.9 percent, while the increase in the nonbenefit-paying States and in Wisconsin, which had paid benefits previously, was slightly less than 11 percent.

Increases in the number of new applications and the number of veterans in the active file were smaller during January than for nonveterans, while the decrease in the number of placements of veterans was also less.

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Tables 1 and 2 summarize activities during January. Table 5 gives a State-by-State report of unemployment compensation activities carried on through the Employment Services for the 6-weeks period ended February 12. State-by-State reports of Employment Service operations for January follow.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Operations of United States Employment Service, January 1938*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		December 1937	January 1937	January 1936
Total applications	1,557,388	+73.6	+136.3	+76.9
New applications	939,708	+107.9	+221.5	+116.7
Renewals	617,680	+38.8	+68.4	+38.2
Total placements	135,759	−24.0	−43.9	−74.0
Private	91,876	−29.0	−36.2	+48.5
Public	41,803	−10.4	−50.3	−56.4
Relief	2,080	−20.9	−85.1	−99.4
Active file	6,054,616	+24.2	−3.6	−33.3

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Veterans' Activities, January 1938*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		December 1937	January 1937	January 1936
New applications	30,833	+78.3	+159.4	+96.5
Total placements	7,738	−21.1	−49.0	−80.4
Private	3,242	−32.8	−51.5	+8.7
Public	4,160	−11.0	−47.2	−65.5
Relief	336	+6.7	−44.4	−98.6
Active file	317,912	+18.5	−8.2	−42.2

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, January 1938*

TOTAL

Division and State	Placements							New applications		Active file	
		Private				Public					
	Total [1]	Number	Percent of change from December	Regular (over 1 month)	Temporary (1 month or less)	Number	Percent of change from December	Number	Percent of change from December	Jan. 31, 1938	Percent of change from Dec. 31, 1937
United States	135,759	91,876	−29.0	39,059	52,817	41,803	−10.4	939,708	+107.9	6,054,616	+24.2
New England	4,899	3,280	−17.4	1,966	1,314	1,498	−11.9	103,798	+67.7	595,450	+30.2
Maine	488	225	+49.0	120	105	263	−19.8	10,298	+67.8	42,974	+62.1
New Hampshire	732	611	−6.9	414	197	121	−26.2	12,088	+236.0	40,740	+72.6
Vermont	401	325	−16.2	184	141	76	−78.9	5,309	+223.5	18,039	+73.3
Massachusetts	1,047	724	−17.4	407	317	301	−18.2	26,329	+31.8	297,305	+12.4
Rhode Island	467	348	−19.4	189	159	77	−34.2	3,798	−61.0	53,910	+9.7
Connecticut	1,764	1,047	−28.5	652	395	660	+82.3	45,976	+121.0	142,482	+71.1
Middle Atlantic	15,273	11,204	−23.3	5,093	6,111	3,431	−23.7	284,681	+224.3	1,492,512	+34.9
New York	7,956	6,184	−28.1	2,597	3,587	1,492	−33.2	185,915	+459.8	466,080	+88.3
New Jersey	2,549	2,300	−12.3	1,177	1,123	183	−53.3	16,766	+79.4	206,432	+13.0
Pennsylvania	4,768	2,720	−19.8	1,319	1,401	1,756	−6.1	[2] 82,000	+81.3	[2] 820,000	+21.2
East North Central	26,807	20,355	−24.4	9,237	11,118	5,813	+11.6	122,555	+72.2	1,082,965	+12.2
Ohio	6,876	5,100	−27.5	2,407	2,693	1,411	−3.9	31,780	+94.0	322,804	+16.2
Indiana	2,049	1,887	−31.8	1,189	698	159	−40.7	13,109	+65.9	111,028	+8.1
Illinois	12,164	9,205	−20.4	3,566	5,639	2,907	+33.8	20,955	+23.5	315,414	+5.1
Michigan	2,318	1,676	−34.6	788	888	515	−10.4	36,679	+161.6	182,210	+23.3
Wisconsin	3,400	2,487	−16.8	1,287	1,200	821	+13.6	20,032	+25.9	151,509	+10.8
West North Central	15,120	10,055	−19.5	4,960	5,095	4,867	−21.0	38,512	+30.3	561,099	+9.8
Minnesota	3,204	2,564	−24.3	1,407	1,157	632	−40.5	15,024	+81.9	147,361	+27.5
Iowa	3,596	2,470	−12.3	1,100	1,370	940	−19.0	4,582	−6.2	67,398	+7.3
Missouri	5,160	2,176	−1.5	1,135	1,041	984	−34.7	9,996	+32.6	161,390	+6.3
North Dakota	1,222	1,083	−40.0	513	570	139	−22.8	1,074	−5.0	28,429	+5.6
South Dakota	952	489	−7.2	169	320	459	−36.8	1,351	−13.2	50,352	−2.4
Nebraska	1,444	735	−11.4	396	339	709	−13.0	2,782	+8.9	44,744	+5.4
Kansas	1,542	538	−40.7	240	298	1,004	+41.8	3,703	+2.2	61,425	+2.3
South Atlantic	17,327	8,234	−30.6	4,253	3,981	8,856	−4.0	142,433	+134.1	729,039	+38.3
Delaware	429	340	−37.0	138	202	87	+45.0	1,111	+23.7	12,292	+14.5
Maryland	1,263	725	−28.3	397	328	538	−15.7	16,553	+12.6	78,567	+47.1
District of Columbia	1,974	1,485	−12.9	796	689	489	+176.3	10,330	+366.8	42,983	+60.1
Virginia	2,264	1,329	−31.0	762	567	925	−47.1	21,414	+365.7	78,311	+65.9
West Virginia	1,034	620	−37.6	349	271	380	+47.3	37,165	+432.4	134,177	+67.1
North Carolina	3,362	2,010	−37.4	1,075	935	1,349	−16.5	34,597	+93.4	136,722	+45.5
South Carolina	1,046	229	−62.7	106	123	816	−12.7	6,390	+117.5	61,882	+18.4
Georgia	4,491	1,496	−19.6	630	866	2,995	+11.3	11,716	+34.7	115,440	+15.5
Florida	1,464	0	-------	0	0	1,277	+16.0	3,157	+62.7	68,665	+9.6
East South Central	7,159	2,798	−37.4	1,867	931	4,328	−21.3	50,970	+81.6	429,780	+16.5
Kentucky	1,545	773	−27.8	453	320	768	−46.9	3,763	+47.7	105,702	+1.1
Tennessee	1,954	1,305	−35.7	958	347	649	−21.5	7,961	−1.0	127,383	+9.0
Alabama	1,749	557	−52.3	343	214	1,164	+28.9	30,925	+145.9	125,838	+42.4
Mississippi	1,911	163	−19.3	113	50	1,747	−24.7	8,321	+69.7	70,857	+19.6
West South Central	29,459	23,136	−36.9	5,352	17,784	6,165	+10.7	82,925	+87.2	481,347	+21.8
Arkansas	1,536	1,194	−19.4	385	809	219	−13.4	6,990	+104.7	58,171	+22.4
Louisiana	3,251	2,190	−40.6	1,168	1,022	1,060	+57.0	19,125	+155.9	89,292	+37.8
Oklahoma	2,371	1,264	−34.8	464	800	1,106	+26.0	6,174	+5.1	105,161	+7.2
Texas	22,301	18,488	−37.5	3,335	15,153	3,780	+0.4	50,636	+84.0	228,723	+23.8
Mountain	6,826	3,850	−30.5	1,865	1,985	2,924	−24.8	18,185	+26.2	197,906	+15.2
Montana	779	453	+10.8	188	265	322	−57.1	1,764	+52.3	26,598	+14.0
Idaho	740	599	+2.9	270	329	141	−45.3	2,019	−7.0	19,594	+9.7
Wyoming	336	234	−20.7	76	158	97	−28.7	669	+20.8	7,793	+22.0
Colorado	2,038	984	−40.9	495	489	1,042	−6.0	4,930	+11.1	64,754	+9.7
New Mexico	842	435	−2.9	304	131	402	−27.4	1,414	+28.1	26,688	+9.8
Arizona	1,274	705	−38.4	313	392	545	−25.3	3,891	+49.7	23,587	+28.2
Utah	278	154	−74.4	51	103	122	−34.8	2,671	+52.9	24,012	+30.4
Nevada	539	286	−28.3	168	118	253	+57.1	827	+29.4	4,880	+19.1
Pacific	12,889	8,964	−30.2	4,466	4,498	3,921	−20.4	95,649	+77.1	484,518	+30.6
Washington	1,202	568	−39.7	325	243	630	−48.8	8,270	+2.1	84,646	+18.2
Oregon	1,244	593	−12.1	320	273	651	−25.3	18,938	+102.1	79,473	+44.6
California	10,443	7,803	−30.5	3,821	3,982	2,640	−6.5	68,441	+87.3	320,399	+31.0

[1] Includes 2,080 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.
[2] Partially estimated.

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, January 1938*—Continued

MEN

Division and State	Placements							New applications		Active file	
		Private				Public					
	Total[1]	Number	Percent of change from December	Regular (over 1 month)	Temporary (1 month or less)	Number	Percent of change from December	Number	Percent of change from December	Jan. 31, 1938	Percent of change from Dec. 31, 1937
United States	85,412	43,606	−33.7	13,998	29,608	39,886	−12.7	704,865	+107.3	4,752,409	+24.5
New England	2,661	1,275	−23.2	691	584	1,283	−22.0	64,763	+49.6	433,950	+27.9
Maine	357	97	+38.6	28	69	260	−19.8	6,508	+45.8	34,641	+54.0
New Hampshire	438	325	−13.1	184	141	113	−29.8	6,976	+195.3	29,431	+63.2
Vermont	219	147	−10.4	67	80	72	−80.6	3,590	+162.0	14,418	+67.4
Massachusetts	545	227	−35.7	108	119	296	−18.7	17,039	+16.7	216,337	+12.0
Rhode Island	219	133	+9.0	78	55	62	−30.3	1,992	−66.3	37,336	+7.5
Connecticut	883	346	−40.0	226	120	480	+38.3	28,658	+96.7	101,787	+63.2
Middle Atlantic	6,742	3,440	−35.1	1,722	1,718	2,690	−36.2	218,572	+222.0	1,164,993	+33.3
New York	3,487	2,119	−38.9	1,028	1,091	1,088	−48.0	146,435	+474.5	368,748	+91.6
New Jersey	781	532	−29.1	324	208	183	−53.1	12,137	+72.7	166,245	+12.9
Pennsylvania	2,474	789	−27.1	370	419	1,419	−18.0	[2] 60,000	+69.7	[2] 630,000	+17.9
East North Central	14,252	7,958	−27.2	2,906	5,052	5,690	+11.3	98,149	+85.0	883,536	+14.2
Ohio	3,399	1,682	−38.6	736	946	1,355	−5.3	25,851	+101.9	265,584	+18.1
Indiana	694	549	−48.8	245	304	143	−44.1	9,763	+79.0	90,502	+9.0
Illinois	7,007	4,085	−17.4	1,340	2,745	2,889	+34.4	14,634	+25.3	250,496	+6.4
Michigan	1,317	694	−36.1	240	454	499	−12.8	33,310	+187.5	177,698	+27.3
Wisconsin	1,835	948	−13.1	345	603	804	+14.5	14,591	+26.5	119,256	+12.2
West North Central	9,648	4,664	−24.2	1,758	2,906	4,788	−21.1	26,817	+26.6	455,203	+9.9
Minnesota	1,765	1,133	−29.0	468	665	625	−40.0	10,217	+63.8	117,483	+27.2
Iowa	2,311	1,211	−13.1	425	786	914	−18.6	3,136	−11.0	54,963	+8.3
Missouri	1,896	914	−8.7	345	569	982	−34.7	7,323	+37.6	130,016	+7.0
North Dakota	676	546	−44.3	238	308	130	−26.6	601	−7.5	22,371	+5.6
South Dakota	728	274	−2.8	77	197	451	−37.2	910	−14.7	43,285	−2.8
Nebraska	1,037	339	−5.8	137	202	698	−13.5	1,966	+9.8	36,526	+5.0
Kansas	1,235	247	−54.2	68	179	988	+41.5	2,664	+2.9	50,559	+3.0
South Atlantic	11,874	3,061	−42.4	1,188	1,873	8,633	−5.2	105,591	+137.0	549,459	+40.9
Delaware	157	69	−62.1	41	28	86	+43.3	792	+31.3	9,373	+17.7
Maryland	724	225	−51.3	131	94	499	−21.5	11,670	+5.5	62,300	+46.5
District of Columbia	790	336	−27.4	155	181	454	+204.7	7,339	+412.5	30,147	+66.2
Virginia	1,459	544	−43.2	204	340	908	−46.9	15,530	+368.9	57,303	+73.5
West Virginia	474	126	−48.1	49	77	316	+26.4	33,091	+493.8	115,831	+73.8
North Carolina	2,045	728	−55.4	268	460	1,317	−17.4	20,317	+75.8	91,504	+42.4
South Carolina	927	116	−68.6	25	91	810	−12.6	5,091	+120.6	45,985	+20.9
Georgia	3,891	917	−8.8	315	602	2,974	+11.2	9,479	+29.3	86,300	+17.5
Florida	1,407	0	-------	-------	-------	1,269	+15.3	2,282	+66.9	50,716	+10.5
East South Central	5,658	1,377	−41.2	857	520	4,258	−21.7	37,846	+71.0	334,680	+16.7
Kentucky	1,045	307	−29.1	131	176	734	−48.2	2,466	+48.3	84,515	+1.0
Tennessee	1,204	566	−43.1	429	137	638	−22.7	5,499	−7.3	99,368	+8.6
Alabama	1,579	419	−44.4	234	185	1,142	+29.6	23,325	+125.1	99,130	+42.9
Mississippi	1,830	85	−46.5	63	22	1,744	−24.8	6,556	+56.9	51,667	+22.5
West South Central	21,701	15,466	−35.3	2,122	13,344	6,078	+10.3	67,091	+102.0	382,347	+24.8
Arkansas	1,098	763	−22.4	100	663	212	−15.2	5,789	+109.9	48,237	+24.1
Louisiana	2,352	1,298	−50.4	578	720	1,053	+57.6	16,379	+187.8	73,892	+43.1
Oklahoma	1,576	509	−51.2	74	435	1,067	+25.7	4,646	+0.3	86,019	+7.7
Texas	16,675	12,896	−33.1	1,370	11,526	3,746	+0.0	40,277	+100.0	174,199	+28.1
Mountain	4,887	1,954	−35.3	829	1,125	2,892	−24.7	14,497	+26.4	165,456	+17.0
Montana	664	344	+8.9	116	228	318	−57.1	1,446	+57.0	22,243	+15.8
Idaho	438	300	+8.7	79	221	138	−45.7	1,705	−6.3	17,542	+11.3
Wyoming	203	105	−23.4	26	79	94	−28.2	509	+42.6	6,450	+23.8
Colorado	1,528	480	−43.8	178	302	1,039	−5.3	3,565	+6.5	51,857	+10.9
New Mexico	664	263	−5.7	200	63	399	−27.5	1,080	+21.6	22,150	+10.4
Arizona	795	235	−60.5	108	127	537	−26.0	3,339	+53.9	20,542	+33.3
Utah	169	50	−81.4	19	31	118	−35.5	2,182	+48.8	20,533	+31.7
Nevada	426	177	−40.0	103	74	249	+55.6	671	+34.2	4,139	+20.3
Pacific	7,989	4,411	−38.1	1,925	2,486	3,574	−24.9	71,539	+65.4	382,785	+31.4
Washington	888	264	−46.1	110	154	620	−48.7	6,931	−0.6	74,088	+19.2
Oregon	925	302	−30.9	115	187	623	−27.7	16,413	+96.1	67,828	+74.2
California	6,176	3,845	−38.0	1,700	2,145	2,331	−13.2	48,195	+72.7	240,869	+31.5

[1] Includes 1,920 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

[2] Partially estimated.

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, January 1938*—Continued

WOMEN

Division and State	Placements					New applications		Active file	
	Total [1]	Private				Number	Percent of change from December	Jan. 31, 1938	Percent of change from Dec. 31, 1937
		Number	Percent of change from December	Regular (over 1 month)	Temporary (1 month or less)				
United States	50,347	48,270	−24.1	25,061	23,209	234,843	+109.7	1,302,207	+23.2
New England	2,238	2,005	−13.2	1,275	730	39,035	+109.7	161,500	+36.8
Maine	131	128	+58.0	92	36	3,790	+126.4	8,333	+107.7
New Hampshire	294	286	+1.4	230	56	5,112	+313.6	11,309	+103.0
Vermont	182	178	−20.5	117	61	1,719	+534.3	3,621	+102.1
Massachusetts	502	497	−5.2	299	198	9,290	+72.7	80,968	+13.5
Rhode Island	248	215	−30.6	111	104	1,806	−52.8	16,574	+14.9
Connecticut	881	701	−21.1	426	275	17,318	+178.2	40,695	+94.7
Middle Atlantic	8,531	7,764	−16.6	3,371	4,393	66,109	+232.3	327,519	+41.0
New York	4,469	4,065	−20.7	1,569	2,496	39,480	+411.3	97,332	+76.8
New Jersey	1,768	1,768	−5.6	853	915	4,629	+100.0	40,187	+13.6
Pennsylvania	2,294	1,931	−16.4	949	982	[2] 22,000	+123.1	[2] 190,000	+33.9
East North Central	12,555	12,397	−22.5	6,331	6,066	24,406	+34.7	199,429	+4.2
Ohio	3,477	3,418	−20.5	1,671	1,747	5,929	+65.6	57,220	+8.2
Indiana	1,355	1,338	−21.0	944	394	3,346	+36.8	20,526	+4.5
Illinois	5,157	5,120	−22.7	2,226	2,894	6,321	+19.5	64,918	+.5
Michigan	1,001	982	−33.4	548	434	3,369	+38.4	24,512	+2.7
Wisconsin	1,565	1,539	−18.9	942	597	5,441	+24.4	32,253	+5.9
West North Central	5,472	5,391	−14.9	3,202	2,189	11,695	+39.7	105,896	+9.2
Minnesota	1,439	1,431	−20.1	939	492	4,807	+137.6	29,878	+28.9
Iowa	1,285	1,259	−11.5	675	584	1,446	+6.0	12,435	+3.3
Missouri	1,264	1,262	+4.4	790	472	2,673	+20.5	31,374	+3.5
North Dakota	546	537	−35.0	275	262	473	−1.7	6,058	+5.7
South Dakota	224	215	−12.2	92	123	441	−9.8	7,067	+.5
Nebraska	407	396	−15.7	259	137	816	+6.7	8,218	+6.9
Kansas	307	291	−20.9	172	119	1,039	+0.5	10,866	−1.0
South Atlantic	5,453	5,173	−20.9	3,065	2,108	36,842	+126.0	179,580	+30.8
Delaware	272	271	−24.3	97	174	319	+8.1	2,919	+5.4
Maryland	539	500	−8.9	266	234	4,883	+34.5	16,267	+49.5
District of Columbia	1,184	1,149	−7.4	641	508	2,991	+283.0	12,836	+47.5
Virginia	805	785	−19.0	558	227	5,884	+357.5	21,008	+48.2
West Virginia	560	494	−34.2	300	194	4,074	+189.3	18,346	+34.4
North Carolina	1,317	1,282	−18.6	807	475	14,280	+125.4	45,218	+52.0
South Carolina	119	113	−53.7	81	32	1,299	+106.2	15,897	+11.8
Georgia	600	579	−32.2	315	264	2,237	+63.9	29,140	+10.2
Florida	57	0	.....	0	0	875	+52.7	17,949	+7.3
East South Central	1,501	1,421	−33.3	1,010	411	13,124	+121.8	95,100	+15.6
Kentucky	500	466	−26.8	322	144	1,297	+46.7	21,187	+1.5
Tennessee	750	739	−28.6	529	210	2,462	+16.7	28,015	+10.5
Alabama	170	138	−66.7	109	29	7,600	+245.3	26,708	+40.6
Mississippi	81	78	+81.4	50	28	1,765	+143.8	19,190	+12.5
West South Central	7,758	7,670	−39.9	3,230	4,440	15,834	+43.0	99,000	+11.5
Arkansas	438	431	−13.5	285	146	1,201	+82.8	9,934	+14.6
Louisiana	899	892	−16.6	590	302	2,746	+54.2	15,400	+16.8
Oklahoma	795	755	−15.8	390	365	1,528	+22.9	19,142	+5.4
Texas	5,626	5,592	−45.7	1,965	3,627	10,359	+40.2	54,524	+11.7
Mountain	1,939	1,896	−24.8	1,036	860	3,688	+25.4	32,450	+6.8
Montana	115	109	+17.2	72	37	318	+34.2	4,355	+5.8
Idaho	302	299	−2.3	191	108	314	−10.3	2,052	−2.7
Wyoming	133	129	−18.4	50	79	160	−18.8	1,343	+13.8
Colorado	510	504	−37.8	317	187	1,365	+25.2	12,897	+5.1
New Mexico	178	172	+1.8	104	68	334	+54.6	4,538	+7.1
Arizona	479	470	−14.4	205	265	552	+28.1	3,045	+1.9
Utah	109	104	−68.7	32	72	489	+74.0	3,479	+23.4
Nevada	113	109	+4.8	65	44	156	+12.2	741	+12.8
Pacific	4,900	4,553	−20.5	2,541	2,012	24,110	+123.8	101,733	+27.6
Washington	314	304	−32.7	215	89	1,339	+18.8	10,558	+11.6
Oregon	319	291	+22.3	205	86	2,525	+152.5	11,645	+31.2
California	4,267	3,958	−21.4	2,121	1,837	20,246	+134.2	79,530	+29.5

[1] Includes 1,017 public placements and 160 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.
[2] Partially estimated.

TABLE 4.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, January 1938*

VETERANS

Division and State	Placements							New applications		Active file	
		Private				Public					
	Total[1]	Number	Percent of change from December	Regular (over 1 month)	Temporary (1 month or less)	Number	Percent of change from December	Number	Percent of change from December	Jan. 31, 1938	Percent of change from Dec. 31 1937
United States	7,738	3,242	−32.8	988	2,254	4,160	−11.0	30,833	+78.3	347,912	+18.5
New England	471	81	−45.3	40	41	330	+65.0	2,881	+30.3	33,411	+17.4
Maine	23	6	−45.5	1	5	17	−29.2	279	+9.8	2,431	+37.4
New Hampshire	22	15	−34.8	8	7	7	−66.7	393	+204.7	2,133	+46.1
Vermont	8	7	−12.5	3	4	1	−92.9	135	+170.0	687	+52.0
Massachusetts	51	15	−31.8	6	9	33	−8.3	964	+4.0	19,989	+7.8
Rhode Island	35	13	−13.3	4	9	22	−56.0	89	−62.6	2,294	+10.1
Connecticut	332	25	−63.8	18	7	250	+354.5	1,021	+66.6	5,877	+41.9
Middle Atlantic	561	222	−36.4	106	116	232	−32.8	6,345	+147.2	68,407	+24.3
New York	208	106	−56.0	40	66	90	−39.2	3,479	+440.2	16,945	+41.7
New Jersey	124	42	−6.7	21	21	19	−44.1	611	+52.8	11,810	+10.7
Pennsylvania	229	74	+17.5	45	29	123	−24.5	2,255	+48.1	39,652	+22.3
East North Central	1,514	690	−21.9	220	470	793	+46.0	5,275	+71.8	62,148	+11.4
Ohio	282	153	−33.8	57	96	127	−34.5	1,283	+82.8	18,580	+16.0
Indiana	61	54	−33.3	16	38	7	−88.5	593	+58.6	6,972	+7.8
Illinois	913	359	−9.6	110	249	554	+211.2	767	+20.6	18,456	+5.6
Michigan	99	49	−39.5	14	35	34	−17.1	1,791	+152.3	9,664	+19.9
Wisconsin	159	75	−19.4	23	52	71	+2.9	841	+29.6	8,476	+9.4
West North Central	1,142	497	−21.1	120	377	526	−53.6	1,693	+31.6	35,825	+9.2
Minnesota	189	118	−11.9	31	87	71	−23.7	514	+49.0	9,659	+18.6
Iowa	455	201	−15.9	32	169	135	−45.3	221	−5.6	4,759	+9.4
Missouri	171	79	+16.2	23	56	92	−84.3	637	+60.5	10,412	+10.0
North Dakota	53	23	−57.4	12	11	30	+66.7	46	+39.4	1,375	+7.1
South Dakota	64	27	−18.2	9	18	37	−32.7	40	−2.4	3,012	−2.7
Nebraska	91	24	−17.2	8	16	67	+15.5	116	+16.0	2,757	+5.1
Kansas	119	25	−65.8	5	20	94	+22.1	119	−12.5	3,851	+.4
South Atlantic	844	247	−38.3	76	171	592	+3.3	3,867	+112.6	31,731	+30.0
Delaware	15	5	−82.1	0	5	10	+900.0	41	+115.8	640	+17.6
Maryland	69	19	−58.7	7	12	50	−2.0	496	+1.2	4,114	+37.0
District of Columbia	141	42	−38.2	11	31	99	+312.5	418	+224.0	2,989	+42.8
Virginia	143	68	−2.9	19	49	74	−39.8	639	+369.9	3,074	+72.7
West Virginia	48	15	0	7	8	33	−31.3	1,020	+292.3	5,889	+51.3
North Carolina	115	32	−56.2	12	20	83	−3.5	563	+36.3	4,073	+26.6
South Carolina	56	3	−85.7	0	3	53	+15.2	210	+180.0	2,334	+19.9
Georgia	174	63	−20.3	20	43	111	−19.6	361	+45.0	4,121	+13.5
Florida	53	0	-------	0	0	79	+41.1	119	+147.9	4,497	+4.7
East South Central	361	74	−54.3	44	30	285	−31.0	1,534	+62.8	17,202	+14.4
Kentucky	101	21	−57.1	8	13	78	−57.1	135	+82.4	4,498	+.7
Tennessee	68	17	−56.4	12	5	51	−33.8	305	−1.6	5,762	+9.1
Alabama	112	31	−52.3	20	11	81	−5.8	850	+107.8	4,972	+34.9
Mississippi	80	5	−44.4	4	1	75	+10.3	244	+63.8	1,970	+22.6
West South Central	1,179	659	−38.6	116	543	516	+4.7	3,249	+147.4	22,254	+20.2
Arkansas	78	56	−24.3	7	49	21	−41.7	275	+97.8	2,970	+16.2
Louisiana	167	74	−52.9	28	46	93	+52.5	744	+172.5	4,833	+32.7
Oklahoma	171	83	−29.1	8	75	88	+12.8	234	+7.8	4,939	+6.1
Texas	763	446	−38.5	73	373	314	−1.3	1,996	+191.8	9,512	+24.1
Mountain	589	234	−20.9	90	144	348	−7.7	847	+10.7	11,750	+16.9
Montana	72	32	+77.8	6	26	40	−50.0	111	+65.7	1,525	+22.6
Idaho	72	52	+30.0	26	26	20	−56.5	146	+4.3	1,319	+10.0
Wyoming	23	17	+21.4	2	15	5	−61.5	38	+81.0	514	+28.2
Colorado	150	47	−31.9	12	35	102	+10.9	181	−8.6	3,698	+12.1
New Mexico	64	12	−20.0	9	3	52	+26.8	45	+104.5	1,463	+10.2
Arizona	87	41	−50.6	22	19	41	−35.9	211	−6.6	1,561	+26.4
Utah	44	6	−70.0	2	4	38	+58.3	69	−4.2	1,426	+22.0
Nevada	77	27	−27.0	11	16	50	+194.1	46	+142.1	244	+37.1
Pacific	1,077	538	−38.9	176	362	538	−9.7	5,142	+54.9	35,184	+24.9
Washington	101	27	−65.8	9	18	73	−48.2	488	+17.3	6,535	+18.9
Oregon	226	34	−17.1	10	24	192	+61.3	1,228	+75.2	6,375	+33.9
California	750	477	−37.3	157	320	273	−18.8	3,426	+55.5	22,274	+24.4

[1] Includes 336 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

TABLE 5.—*Operation of the United States Employment Service in Connection With Unemployment-Compensation Benefit Claims*

[In the 23 benefit-paying States, Jan. 1 to Feb. 12, 1938]

State	Employment Service active file			Unemployment-compensation claims received	
	Dec. 31, 1937	Feb. 12, 1938	Percent of change	Original claims [1]	Continued claims [2]
Total	2,726,562	4,026,396	+47.7	2,450,379	4,413,207
Alabama	88,360	137,013	+55.1	65,504	144,729
Arizona	18,394	23,487	+27.7	7,706	18,125
California	244,598	348,658	+42.5	149,279	359,631
Connecticut	83,286	152,313	+82.9	103,661	338,899
Louisiana	64,816	96,563	+49.0	24,153	38,678
Maine	26,513	52,633	+98.5	33,279	81,616
Maryland	53,404	88,084	+64.9	82,461	203,497
Massachusetts	264,421	308,992	+16.9	223,120	147,112
Minnesota	115,566	210,400	+82.1	70,590	231,853
New Hampshire	23,607	44,520	+88.6	27,207	59,300
New York	247,507	546,959	+121.0	648,981	[3]
North Carolina	93,989	148,624	+58.1	77,876	195,229
Oregon	54,945	87,028	+58.4	49,193	113,807
Pennsylvania	676,466	867,650	+28.3	503,527	1,295,344
Rhode Island	49,162	55,674	+13.2	75,708	247,719
Tennessee	116,839	132,332	+13.3	54,562	170,187
Texas	184,747	235,187	+27.3	49,394	89,945
Utah	18,408	27,118	+47.3	15,138	37,262
Vermont	10,407	19,088	+83.4	10,516	30,125
Virginia	47,204	86,786	+83.9	39,442	93,492
West Virginia	80,291	147,507	+83.7	80,741	244,074
Wisconsin	136,784	164,085	+20.0	38,338	226,990
District of Columbia	26,848	45,695	+70.2	20,003	45,593

[1] The applications of many of these claimants had not at the time of reporting been checked against Employment Service records or added to the active file.

[2] This total represents the number of notices for continued claims filed since Jan. 1, and is therefore greater than the number of claim series involved (original claims).

[3] Not available.

Trend of Employment and Pay Rolls

SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR JANUARY 1938

NET DECREASES in employment and pay rolls were shown between December and January in all manufacturing industries combined and in the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed monthly by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. The estimated decline in number of workers in these industries was 1,280,000, and in weekly wage disbursements, $35,100,000.

There were approximately 1,300,000 fewer workers on the rolls of these industries in January 1938 than in the corresponding month of 1937 and their weekly wage bill was nearly $35,400,000 lower.

There was a decrease between December and January of 46,786 in the number of workers on class I railroads (exclusive of executives, officials, and staff assistants), according to a preliminary tabulation by the Interstate Commerce Commission. This tabulation showed 947,374 workers employed in January.

Employment in the judicial and military services of the Federal Government was greater in January than in the preceding month, while decreases occurred in the executive and legislative services. The growing unemployment in industry necessitated increases in the number of workers engaged on projects operated by W. P. A. Increases in employment also occurred on work projects of the National Youth Administration and Student Aid. Decreases occurred in the number of wage earners employed on Federal projects under The Works Program, P. W. A. construction projects, projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, projects financed from regular Federal appropriations, and State road projects. There was a decrease in the number of workers in the Civilian Conservation Corps.

Industrial and Business Employment

Almost all major lines of industry reporting to the Bureau showed some reduction in the number of their employees and the amount of their weekly pay rolls from December to January. In most cases the reductions were greater than seasonal.

Manufacturing industries as a whole showed an estimated decline over the month interval of 535,000 wage earners (7.2 percent) with a shrinkage of $18,900,000 (11.5 percent) in weekly wage disbursements.

Although there are normally fairly marked declines in factory employment and pay rolls in January, the current declines are much more pronounced than usual for the season and have been exceeded in January in only one year (1921) during the past 18 years for which data are available.

Compared with January 1937, factory employment showed a decrease of 14.8 percent (1,195,000 workers) and weekly factory pay rolls a decrease of 21.1 percent ($38,900,000).

Of the 89 manufacturing industries for which index numbers are computed, 84 had fewer employees in January than a month earlier and 83 had lower pay rolls. The reductions were much more pronounced in the durable goods group of industries than in the nondurable goods group. For the former group, the employment decline was 10.9 percent and the pay-roll decrease 17.1 percent. The nondurable goods group showed reductions of 3.6 percent in employment and 5.0 percent in pay rolls.

Among the durable goods industries which reported the largest employment declines over the month interval were automobiles (23.2 percent or 105,100 workers), blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills (9.2 percent or 37,000 workers), foundries and machine shops (7.9 percent or 31,000 workers), steam-railroad repair shops (10.7 percent or 24,700 workers), electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies (8.4 percent or 19,600 workers), sawmills (7.2 percent or 14,800 workers), and furniture (8.1 percent or 10,400). Among the nondurable goods industries having large reductions in force were cotton goods (2.7 percent or 10,600 workers), knit goods (4.4 percent or 8,300 workers), silk and rayon goods (8.6 percent or 6,700 workers) and newspapers (3.3 percent or 4,100 workers).

The five manufacturing industries which showed employment gains over the month were millinery (13.6 percent), boots and shoes (6.5 percent), slaughtering and meat packing (2.1 percent), fertilizers (1.2 percent), and chewing and smoking tobacco (0.6 percent). All of these increases were seasonal in character except the one for slaughtering and meat packing.

All but one of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed showed decreases in employment and pay rolls between December and January. The exception was insurance, which showed gains of 1.0 percent in employment and 0.8 percent in pay rolls.

The most pronounced employment decline in the nonmanufacturing group was in retail trade, where a recession of 16.3 percent (642,000 employees) was due largely to the release of temporary workers who had been employed for the holiday trade. Weekly pay rolls in this industry fell 13.1 percent or nearly $9,700,000. While employment declines occurred in all of the 39 lines of retail trade surveyed, with the exception of farmers' supply stores and firms dealing in

wood, coal and ice, the most pronounced loss (31.3 percent) was the post-holiday reduction in force in the general merchandising group, which consists of department, variety, and general merchandising stores and mail-order houses. Other groups of retail trade establishments showing marked recessions following the Christmas expansion were jewelry (20.5 percent), apparel (19.4 percent), and furniture (12.2 percent). Seasonal recessions, slightly more pronounced than usual, occurred in lumber and building materials (6.2 percent) and hardware (6.8 percent). Automotive establishments showed an employment loss of 4.3 percent, drug stores 2.4 percent, and food stores 2.5 percent.

Employment in wholesale trade establishments decreased 2.5 percent. A loss in employment in wholesale trade between December and January has occurred in each of the preceding 9 years for which the Bureau has been collecting these data, but the decrease in the present year is slightly more than any previously reported for the same interval. The losses were general among the various lines of wholesale trade surveyed. The most pronounced percentage declines in employment occurred in general merchandise (10.9 percent) and jewelry and optical goods (18.9 percent). In most other lines of trade the declines were not large. For the groups of wholesale dealers employing large numbers of workers, employment recessions over the month interval were as follows: Food products (2.4 percent), groceries and food specialties (0.9 percent), dry goods and apparel (3.7 percent), machinery, equipment and supplies (1.4 percent), automotive (1.5 percent), lumber and building materials (5.1 percent), electrical goods (2.8 percent), chemicals and drugs (1.3 percent), metals and minerals (1.2 percent), hardware (1.9 percent), paper and paper products (2.0 percent), and furniture and housefurnishings (4.1 percent). Employment declines were also reported by manufacturers' sales branches (2.6 percent), assemblers and country buyers (4.3 percent), and agents and brokers (1.1 percent).

Private building construction firms reported seasonal declines of 14.2 percent in employment and 15.2 percent in pay rolls, which were somewhat larger than the January recessions of the preceding 5 years. Employment in the quarrying and nonmetallic mining industry fell 11.7 percent (largely seasonal) and in metalliferous mining, 4.4 percent. Wage-rate decreases in the latter industry accounted in part for its 9.5-percent pay-roll decline. The employment decreases in the remaining nonmanufacturing industries ranged from 0.3 percent to 3.0 percent and were largely due to seasonal influences.

The 16 nonmanufacturing industries combined had approximately 749,000 fewer employees on their pay rolls in January than in December and paid out approximately $16,200,000 less in weekly wages.

According to a preliminary tabulation by the Interstate Commerce Commission there were 947,374 employees on class I railroads, exclusive of executives, officials, and staff assistants. This was 4.7 percent or 46,786 workers lower than the December figure. January pay-roll totals were not available when this report was prepared. For December, however, the wage disbursements were $151,025,582, a decrease of 2.5 percent or $3,831,183 from November.

Hours and earnings.—According to reports covering both full- and part-time employees, factory wage earners worked an average of 33.2 hours per week in January, which was 3.7 percent lower than the December figure. Average hourly earnings for these workers were 66.3 cents, a decrease of 0.5 percent compared with December; and average weekly earnings fell 4.6 percent to $21.88.

Of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hour data are available, only 2 showed gains in average hours worked per week. These were telephone and telegraph (1.1 percent), and year-round hotels (0.2 percent). Increases in average hourly earnings were reported for 8 of the 14 industries and only 1 industry, retail trade, showed higher average weekly earnings (3.9 percent).

Previous to January 1938, the wording of the definition of employees on the schedules for public utilities, wholesale and retail trade, hotels, and brokerage and insurance firms called for the inclusion of higher-salaried employees such as corporation officers, executives, and others whose duties are mainly supervisory. These employees have, for the most part, always been excluded from employment reports for other industries, and beginning with this month it was requested that they be omitted also for the industries named above. For this reason, the average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings which have been published for these industries for December 1937 and prior months are not comparable with the January figures. Comparable December data, however, were secured and used in computing the percentage changes and indexes presented in the following table.

This table presents employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings in January 1938 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, and for class I railroads, with percentage changes over the month and year intervals except in the few industries for which data are not available.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1938 (Preliminary figures)*

Industry	Employment			Pay roll			Average weekly earnings		
	Index, January 1938	Percentage change from—		Index, January 1938	Percentage change from—		Average in January 1938	Percentage change from—	
		December 1937	January 1937		December 1937	January 1937		December 1937	January 1937
	(*1923–25 =100*)			(*1923–25 =100*)					
All manufacturing industries combined [1]	82.2	−7.2	−14.8	71.6	−11.5	−21.1	$21.88	−4.6	−7.3
Class I steam railroads [2]	53.7	−4.8	−10.8	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
	(*1929= 100*)			(*1929= 100*)					
Coal mining:									
Anthracite [4]	59.6	−3.0	−8.7	46.5	−9.3	+.3	25.27	−6.5	+9.9
Bituminous [4]	96.8	−2.6	−7.3	70.2	−26.1	−24.9	19.26	−24.1	−19.0
Metalliferous mining	67.3	−4.4	+.8	59.0	−9.5	+1.0	27.80	−5.3	+.2
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	38.8	−11.7	−15.2	28.2	−15.6	−18.7	18.66	−4.4	−4.1
Crude-petroleum producing	75.6	−1.2	+3.9	68.0	−2.5	+11.1	33.70	−1.3	+7.0
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph	77.8	−.3	+4.5	93.8	−.9	+12.2	[5] 31.02	−.6	+7.4
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	94.0	−2.2	+2.0	98.9	−3.4	+7.1	[5] 33.47	−1.3	+5.0
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance	72.2	−.8	−.3	70.9	−1.4	+4.3	[5] 32.11	−.6	+4.7
Trade:									
Wholesale	90.9	−2.5	+.2	75.3	−3.1	+3.8	[5] 28.95	−.6	+3.6
Retail	84.1	−16.3	−1.5	70.1	−13.1	+3.1	[5] 21.43	+3.9	+4.8
General merchandising	91.5	−37.3	−3.8	84.6	−31.4	+.9	[5] 18.37	+9.4	+4.8
Other than general merchandising	82.5	−7.2	−1.0	67.1	−6.5	+3.7	[5] 23.92	+.8	+4.8
Hotels (year-round) [4] [6]	94.3	−.6	+1.5	81.5	−1.3	+7.0	[5] 14.90	−.7	+5.4
Laundries [4]	96.7	−.3	−1.6	80.1	−1.2	+2.4	17.04	−.9	+4.1
Dyeing and cleaning [4]	96.7	−2.5	−2.1	65.3	−4.8	+.9	18.66	−2.4	+3.0
Brokerage	[3]	−1.9	−10.6	[3]	−3.4	−12.6	[5] 36.23	−1.5	−2.2
Insurance	[3]	+1.0	+2.4	[3]	+.8	+3.8	[5] 37.38	−.2	+1.4
Building construction	[3]	−14.2	−16.5	[3]	−15.2	−12.3	28.36	−1.2	+5.1

[1] Indexes adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures.
[2] Preliminary. Source: Interstate Commerce Commission.
[3] Not available.
[4] Indexes adjusted to 1935 Census and not comparable with previously published indexes or indexes appearing in table 1 of the following section ("Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, December 1937"). The completely revised series will be presented in the next issue of this publication. In the meantime, they are available in mimeograph form on request.
[5] Average weekly earnings not strictly comparable with previously published figures as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. Similarly not comparable with average weekly earnings shown in table 1 of the following section ("Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, December 1937").
[6] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

Public Employment

In the period from mid-December to mid-January, approximately 97,000 wage earners were working on P. W. A. construction projects, a decrease of 8,000 as compared with the preceding month. Of the total number of employees 29,000 were working on Federal and non-Federal N. I. R. A. projects and 68,000 on projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds. Pay-roll disbursements on all P. W. A. projects amounted to $7,837,000.

There were 154,000 workers employed on construction projects financed from regular Federal appropriations. Compared with the

period ending in mid-December this represents a decrease of 27,000. The decrease was caused largely by seasonal curtailment in road building. Employment decreases occurred on nonresidential building construction projects, Rural Electrification Administration projects, public roads, reclamation, river, harbor, and flood control, streets and roads, water and sewerage, and miscellaneous projects. Small increases in employment were reported for all other types of projects. Pay-roll disbursements for January totaled $15,706,000, a decline of $1,457,000 compared with the preceding month.

For the period from mid-December to mid-January 3,700 workers were employed on construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. Decreases in employment occurred on building construction and water and sewerage projects, while an increase was registered in the number working on miscellaneous projects. Pay-roll disbursements amounted to $549,000.

Nearly 227,000 more workers were engaged at the site of projects under The Works Program in January than in December. The necessity for this increase was the growing unemployment in industry. Employment on projects of The Works Program during January totaled 2,507,000. Of this number 158,000 were working on Federal projects, 1,898,000 on projects operated by the Works Progress Administration, and 451,000 on works projects of the National Youth Administration and on Student Aid. Total pay rolls for The Works Program were $105,477,000, an increase of $6,497,000 over December.

Increases in employment in the regular services of the Federal Government were reported in the judicial and military services, while employment in the executive and legislative services decreased. Of the 811,000 employees in the executive service in January, 113,000 were working in the District of Columbia and 698,000 outside the District. Approximately 84.7 percent of the total number of employees in the executive service were paid from regular appropriations and 7.4 percent from emergency funds. Day labor hired by the Federal Government for construction work (force-account) was 7.9 percent of the total employment in the executive service. The most marked increase in employment occurred in the Social Security Board. Among the departments reporting decreases were the Post Office Department, the War Department, and the Department of Agriculture.

The number of workers employed in the Civilian Conservation Corps was 335,000, which was approximately 3,000 fewer than in December. Decreases in employment were registered for all classes of workers with the exception of nurses. Virtually no change occurred in the number of nurses employed. Of the total number employed in camps during January 290,000 were enrolled workers, 5,000 reserve

officers, 300 nurses, 1,600 educational advisers, and 38,000 supervisory and technical employees. The monthly pay roll for all classes of workers was $15,444,000.

Approximately 142,000 workers were engaged on State road construction projects during the month ending January 15, a falling-off of 28,000 compared with the mid-December period. Of the total number employed, 15,000, or 10.8 percent, were working on new roads and 127,000, or 89.2 percent, on maintenance and repairs to existing roads. January pay-roll disbursements for both types of work totaled $9,577,000.

A summary of Federal employment and pay-roll statistics for December 1937 and January 1938 is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Federal Employment and Pay Rolls, January 1938* [1]
(*Preliminary Figures*)

Class	Employment		Percentage change	Pay rolls		Percentage change
	January 1938	December 1937		January 1938	December 1937	
Federal services:						
Executive [2]	811,481	[3] 890,603	−8.9	$122,861,647	[3] $137,345,103	−10.5
Judicial	2,034	2,008	+1.3	518,126	514,920	+.6
Legislative	5,183	5,188	−.1	1,201,451	1,209,723	−.7
Military	328,643	326,667	+.6	25,183,692	25,856,294	−2.2
Construction projects:						
Financed by P. W. A. [4]	96,725	104,718	−7.6	7,836,628	8,989,667	−12.8
Financed by R. F. C. [5]	3,739	3,977	−6.0	549,058	554,040	−.9
Financed by regular Federal appropriations	153,864	180,864	−14.9	15,705,838	17,162,379	−8.5
Federal projects under The Works Program	157,827	186,133	−15.2	7,973,494	10,173,186	−21.6
Projects operated by W. P. A.	1,898,162	1,668,085	+13.8	92,960,662	84,570,148	+9.9
National Youth Administration:						
Work projects	144,797	137,929	+5.0	2,549,914	2,397,423	+6.4
Student Aid	306,341	288,131	+6.3	1,992,810	1,839,242	+8.3
Civilian Conservation Corps	335,244	338,217	−.9	15,444,235	[3] 15,824,325	−2.4

[1] Includes data on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds.
[2] Includes force-account and supervisory and technical employees shown under other classifications to the extent of 104,180 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $12,690,435 for January 1938 and 109,949 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $13,409,327 for December 1937.
[3] Revised.
[4] Data covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds are included. These data are not shown under The Works Program. Includes 67,967 wage earners and $5,176,438 pay-roll disbursements for January 1938; 70,228 wage earners and $5,685,040 pay-roll disbursements for December 1937 covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds.
[5] Includes 113 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $9,991 for January 1938 and 116 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $9,760 for December 1937 on projects financed by the RFC Mortgage Co.

DETAILED REPORTS FOR DECEMBER 1937

Industrial and Business Employment

A MONTHLY report on employment and pay rolls is published as a separate pamphlet by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This gives detailed data regarding employment, pay rolls, working hours, and earnings for the current month for industrial and business establishments and for the various forms of public employment. This pamphlet is distributed free upon request. Its principal contents for the month of December, insofar as industrial and business employment is concerned, are reproduced in this section of the Monthly Labor Review.

Figures on employment and pay rolls are available for the following groups: 89 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction; and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first two of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and in virtually all industries the samples are large enough to be entirely representative. The figures on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission and are presented in the foregoing summary.

EMPLOYMENT, PAY ROLLS, HOURS, AND EARNINGS

Indexes of employment and pay rolls as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings for October, November, and December 1937, are presented in table 1. The October and November figures may differ in some instances from those previously published because of revisions necessitated by the inclusion of late reports and other causes.

Average weekly earnings shown in table 1 are computed by dividing the total weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As all reporting establishments do not supply man-hour data, average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings are necessarily based on data supplied by a smaller number of reporting firms. The size and composition of the reporting sample varies slightly from month to month and therefore the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown in the following table are not strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movements of earnings and hours over the period shown.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, December, November, and October, 1937*

MANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 3-year average 1923–25=100 and are adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures. Not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to October 1936. Comparable series available on request]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	December 1937	November 1937	October 1937	December 1937	November 1937	October 1937	December 1937	November 1937	October 1937	December 1937	November 1937	October 1937	December 1937	November 1937	October 1937
													Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing industries	88.6	94.7	100.5	80.9	89.5	100.1	$22.93	$23.92	$25.39	34.4	35.4	37.6	66.6	66.7	66.6
Durable goods	84.3	92.4	97.6	77.0	89.9	101.7	24.95	26.80	28.83	34.4	36.4	39.1	72.9	73.3	73.0
Nondurable goods	93.3	97.3	103.6	85.8	89.0	98.2	20.68	20.54	21.37	34.3	34.4	35.9	60.0	59.6	59.6
Durable goods															
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	90.0	98.1	105.8	71.9	85.7	106.8	22.49	24.64	28.50	30.1	32.6	37.0	76.1	76.3	76.8
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	99.6	108.6	117.5	75.5	92.9	118.9	22.47	25.33	29.96	27.3	30.7	35.7	82.8	82.8	83.7
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	73.5	80.5	84.8	66.1	78.7	96.9	20.39	22.34	25.94	29.7	32.3	38.2	68.9	69.2	68.0
Cast-iron pipe	60.2	57.9	62.1	44.3	42.6	46.3	19.65	19.68	19.98	33.7	33.5	34.4	58.1	58.5	57.7
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	83.9	88.3	89.8	74.6	80.5	85.9	22.32	22.94	24.06	37.5	38.9	40.4	61.2	60.2	60.6
Forgings, iron and steel	60.6	64.7	71.6	49.0	55.8	67.6	24.60	26.22	28.86	33.7	35.6	39.5	73.3	74.1	73.3
Hardware	84.0	91.5	94.4	80.6	99.9	114.5	21.63	24.55	27.26	32.2	35.4	39.3	67.2	69.4	69.3
Plumbers' supplies	79.8	89.6	93.6	55.3	63.5	76.2	21.96	22.45	25.83	32.3	33.6	39.0	67.9	66.8	66.4
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	61.8	66.3	73.5	49.1	53.1	66.6	22.90	23.18	26.24	32.8	33.1	37.7	69.6	69.8	69.4
Stoves	77.2	91.1	108.3	56.0	65.0	94.2	21.26	21.02	25.59	33.3	32.3	39.3	65.4	65.5	65.4
Structural and ornamental metalwork	69.5	75.0	79.1	68.2	74.5	81.6	27.59	27.99	29.04	38.4	39.3	40.9	72.0	71.4	71.2
Tin cans and other tinware	91.3	96.8	100.8	94.4	99.8	107.5	23.10	23.07	23.85	37.6	37.5	38.6	62.2	61.9	62.0
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	87.6	91.7	97.0	82.4	90.3	100.7	21.96	22.95	24.20	35.2	36.7	39.0	62.2	62.2	61.9
Wirework	161.2	179.5	187.2	136.1	162.3	202.3	21.47	23.00	26.79	31.5	33.5	37.9	68.2	68.7	70.8
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	113.1	121.4	128.9	110.6	121.2	134.2	27.25	27.79	28.86	36.9	37.9	39.9	73.1	72.6	72.0
Agricultural implements	139.6	143.0	150.5	173.5	184.5	203.5	27.67	28.74	30.14	37.3	38.9	40.6	74.4	74.1	74.5
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines	129.0	133.6	136.3	137.9	141.2	148.4	33.05	32.61	33.61	39.6	39.7	41.1	84.1	82.7	82.5
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	104.7	113.1	119.3	102.9	114.3	124.8	27.01	27.74	28.65	36.1	37.2	39.0	74.8	74.6	73.6
Engines, turbines, tractors, and water wheels	141.2	147.8	152.5	143.6	155.0	159.4	31.32	32.38	32.36	37.9	39.3	39.4	82.9	82.8	82.5
Foundry and machine-shop products	98.1	104.8	110.4	93.0	101.8	113.5	26.47	27.12	28.69	37.0	38.3	40.6	71.3	70.8	70.6
Machine tools	148.1	153.9	157.7	149.0	157.9	170.3	31.03	31.63	33.31	42.2	42.9	45.1	73.5	73.8	73.9
Radios and phonographs	124.0	156.7	200.5	98.7	123.0	165.5	20.90	20.74	21.67	33.2	33.2	35.6	63.0	62.5	61.1
Textile machinery and parts	73.7	77.7	82.8	63.4	70.2	80.9	23.53	24.50	26.26	35.7	37.0	39.3	66.1	66.6	67.2
Typewriters and supplies	93.2	97.4	101.2	89.4	96.4	104.2	29.49	30.43	32.17	35.2	37.5	37.0	83.7	81.2	87.0
Other machinery	104.2	110.2	116.2	94.3	104.1	114.8	26.31	26.70	27.61	36.2	36.8	38.1	72.7	72.6	72.5
Automobiles	87.1	94.2	101.2	74.1	87.1	101.2	25.39	26.39	28.39	36.1	37.1	39.8	70.3	71.1	71.3
Automobile parts and accessories	94.1	101.2	107.3	82.1	93.2	107.3	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Brass, bronze, and copper products	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Jewelry	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Lumber and allied products	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Lumber, millwork, and furniture	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Sawmills	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Nonferrous metals and their products	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Nonmetallic minerals and products	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Stone, clay, and glass products	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Transportation equipment, not including automobiles	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Aircraft	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Railroad repair shops	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Shipbuilding	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Nondurable goods															
Textiles and their products	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Fabrics	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Wearing apparel	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Leather and its manufactures	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Boots and shoes	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Food and kindred products	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Baking	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Beverages	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Butter, cheese, and milk	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Canning and preserving	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Confectionery	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Flour	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Ice cream	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Meat packing	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Sugar refining	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Paper and printing	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Paper and pulp	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Printing and publishing	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Book and job	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Newspapers and periodicals	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Rubber products	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Tires and inner tubes	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Other rubber goods	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Tobacco manufactures	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0
Cigars and cigarettes	93.1	98.1	104.1	82.1	91.1	104.1	24.31	25.01	26.91	36.1	36.9	39.6	67.3	67.8	68.0

Machine tools	148.1	153.9	157.7	149.0	157.9	170.3	31.03	31.83	33.31	42.2	42.9	43.1	73.5	73.5	73.6
Radios and phonographs	124.0	156.7	200.5	98.7	123.0	165.5	20.90	20.74	21.67	33.2	33.2	35.6	63.0	62.5	61.1
Textile machinery and parts	73.7	77.7	82.8	63.4	70.2	80.9	23.53	24.50	26.26	35.7	37.0	39.3	66.1	66.6	67.2
Typewriters and parts	127.0	138.4	147.9	106.6	106.0	128.4	22.40	20.43	23.17	35.2	32.5	37.0	63.7	62.7	62.6
Transportation equipment	105.5	121.8	122.7	92.4	120.0	129.9	27.40	31.03	33.37	31.2	35.1	37.7	88.1	88.9	88.6
Aircraft	781.0	795.0	784.0	700.7	725.3	723.0	28.06	27.89	28.17	39.8	39.7	40.6	70.4	70.2	69.5
Automobiles	112.9	133.2	133.9	90.8	125.8	138.3	26.44	31.23	34.07	29.2	34.3	37.3	90.5	91.3	91.4
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	55.8	65.8	67.9	65.0	81.1	82.5	27.93	29.61	29.13	36.9	38.5	38.9	75.7	76.9	74.8
Locomotives	59.5	61.6	64.1	53.7	51.4	56.0	35.15	32.47	34.08	43.5	41.4	44.0	80.8	78.5	77.4
Shipbuilding	104.8	105.9	106.8	126.5	121.4	124.4	32.69	31.02	31.54	37.9	36.9	37.3	85.0	83.8	83.0
Railroad repair shops	52.7	57.4	59.0	55.7	63.3	64.9	30.48	31.61	31.58	41.5	43.0	43.2	73.3	73.6	73.4
Electric railroad	63.5	63.1	63.3	70.1	68.2	68.0	31.38	30.63	30.46	44.8	43.6	43.7	68.6	68.5	68.0
Steam railroad	51.9	57.0	58.7	54.7	63.0	64.9	30.33	31.78	31.76	41.2	43.0	43.2	73.7	74.1	73.8
Nonferrous metals and their products	98.9	108.4	112.7	86.5	99.9	109.9	23.49	24.63	26.18	35.1	37.3	39.7	66.5	65.9	65.8
Aluminum manufactures	114.1	123.5	104.7	110.7	127.8	115.9	24.18	25.82	27.63	35.3	38.5	40.4	68.6	67.2	68.4
Brass, bronze, and copper products	97.0	105.5	113.1	80.3	92.1	106.7	23.36	24.77	26.76	31.9	33.7	36.7	73.0	73.4	73.0
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	115.3	125.0	127.5	105.3	122.3	132.7	20.72	22.22	23.62	35.4	38.6	41.1	58.5	57.6	57.5
Jewelry	89.9	100.3	106.4	70.6	78.8	89.4	23.53	24.09	25.80	38.2	40.3	43.2	61.3	58.9	59.2
Lighting equipment	87.1	95.6	100.1	72.1	94.4	104.3	21.31	25.07	26.18	31.7	38.3	39.9	67.5	65.4	65.7
Silverware and plated ware	76.1	79.3	80.8	67.7	72.6	80.7	24.18	24.84	27.10	37.7	38.8	42.4	64.1	64.1	64.3
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	85.3	88.0	92.1	80.2	83.8	90.9	27.73	27.90	29.10	40.2	39.9	41.7	69.0	69.8	69.8
Stamped and enameled ware	122.6	144.0	154.0	114.7	141.5	156.4	21.69	22.76	23.70	35.0	37.1	39.1	61.8	61.2	60.6
Lumber and allied products	58.1	63.5	69.5	48.4	55.1	65.3	18.62	19.48	21.23	36.3	37.2	40.3	51.3	52.8	53.3
Furniture	74.5	79.5	86.8	60.0	65.8	76.8	19.27	19.66	21.11	36.0	37.0	40.4	53.7	53.2	52.4
Lumber:															
Millwork	47.6	51.2	54.3	42.8	46.3	51.7	20.38	20.58	21.90	37.0	37.7	40.2	55.2	54.7	54.5
Sawmills	42.8	47.6	52.7	33.9	40.4	49.4	17.56	18.99	21.13	36.4	37.3	40.2	48.8	52.0	53.6
Stone, clay, and glass products	63.2	68.2	71.4	54.5	63.6	69.6	21.86	23.71	24.74	33.8	36.5	38.7	64.9	64.4	63.9
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	41.1	45.5	50.0	30.8	36.4	44.2	17.95	19.18	21.19	33.8	35.8	39.6	53.5	53.4	53.3
Cement	60.5	66.1	69.2	58.0	67.3	72.2	24.34	25.73	26.34	36.1	38.2	39.1	67.4	67.4	67.3
Glass	100.0	106.7	109.9	95.8	111.9	119.2	23.01	25.21	26.10	32.4	35.8	37.5	71.2	70.5	70.0
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	38.0	42.1	43.4	30.8	34.6	37.8	23.64	23.88	25.37	35.1	36.2	38.7	67.5	66.3	66.2
Pottery	74.1	76.9	78.6	59.7	70.0	72.9	21.19	24.05	24.29	34.9	37.9	39.8	63.1	63.1	62.1
Nondurable goods															
Textile and their products	88.2	92.0	98.8	68.7	71.5	84.2	15.42	15.37	16.87	30.3	30.6	32.8	51.1	50.9	52.1
Fabrics	84.0	87.2	91.9	68.9	71.5	81.0	15.36	15.24	16.45	31.4	31.5	33.6	49.0	49.2	49.4
Carpets and rugs	78.3	85.7	88.7	54.4	49.7	64.2	16.50	13.77	17.07	25.6	21.2	26.4	64.4	64.9	64.6
Cotton goods	89.0	91.1	93.9	74.1	76.8	85.1	13.13	13.25	14.30	30.9	31.5	33.7	42.3	42.1	42.4
Cotton small wares	84.9	91.2	98.4	74.9	79.0	96.8	16.47	16.10	18.35	33.5	33.1	37.1	50.0	50.0	50.3
Dyeing and finishing textiles	105.3	108.8	112.2	86.5	89.0	94.6	19.81	19.87	20.49	34.0	34.4	35.3	58.0	57.6	57.5
Hats, fur-felt	83.5	83.0	83.0	64.9	61.0	62.0	21.13	19.96	20.20	30.8	28.2	26.7	70.6	71.6	72.4
Knit goods	103.3	111.9	116.3	95.1	112.3	122.8	16.00	17.40	18.33	31.7	33.7	35.6	51.3	52.4	52.3
Silk and rayon goods	63.2	67.6	75.4	48.1	50.8	62.4	14.75	14.54	16.02	32.0	31.7	34.2	46.0	46.2	46.9
Woolen and worsted goods	61.1	59.8	68.4	49.6	42.8	52.8	18.69	16.43	17.73	31.7	27.7	30.3	59.2	59.4	58.6

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, December, November, and October 1937*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings			Average hours worked per week			Average hourly earnings		
	December 1937	November 1937	October 1937	December 1937	November 1937	October 1937	December 1937	November 1937	October 1937	December 1937	November 1937	October 1937	December 1937	November 1937	October 1937
Nondurable goods—Continued															
													Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Textile and their products—Continued.															
Wearing apparel	95.6	101.0	112.1	65.2	68.6	87.0	$15.60	$15.74	$17.99	28.2	28.9	31.3	55.3	54.3	57.4
Clothing, men's	84.0	90.7	103.5	55.5	61.1	80.2	15.61	15.82	18.14	25.2	26.1	29.5	62.4	61.1	62.1
Clothing, women's	131.0	134.9	150.4	86.0	84.2	110.1	17.85	17.25	20.29	29.4	29.2	31.2	56.8	55.5	61.7
Corsets and allied garments	87.6	88.1	89.7	79.7	82.1	87.3	14.85	15.52	16.17	32.0	33.6	33.3	46.7	46.0	47.8
Men's furnishings	118.8	130.4	135.9	89.8	103.8	111.8	13.16	14.36	14.79	31.5	32.8	35.6	36.6	37.3	37.6
Millinery	44.1	43.8	52.0	27.4	26.7	35.5	18.00	17.40	20.30						
Shirts and collars	106.3	114.6	120.7	87.3	102.6	112.5	12.11	13.14	13.97	30.2	33.1	34.7	41.0	40.4	40.8
Leather and its manufactures	81.8	80.3	89.5	58.4	53.8	66.3	16.61	15.48	17.14	31.1	28.6	31.8	53.6	54.5	54.2
Boots and shoes	83.8	80.8	90.7	53.2	46.0	58.7	15.25	13.72	15.50	30.1	26.9	30.4	51.1	52.3	51.9
Leather	78.6	82.9	89.6	78.5	82.7	95.0	22.23	22.13	23.60	35.2	35.2	37.5	63.8	62.8	63.3
Food and kindred products	107.3	114.6	125.0	110.4	115.9	125.0	24.93	24.46	23.77	40.5	40.3	40.9	61.2	60.2	58.8
Baking	131.6	135.2	138.4	127.4	130.3	137.3	25.22	25.10	25.84	41.4	41.4	43.0	61.3	61.1	60.6
Beverages	187.4	194.3	202.7	202.0	212.7	222.4	31.65	32.22	32.36	37.9	38.8	39.2	84.4	84.2	83.5
Butter	81.6	83.7	86.4	65.8	67.2	70.3	22.27	22.42	22.71						
Canning and preserving	89.1	118.7	185.9	86.6	111.4	187.7	16.22	15.74	16.24	33.6	33.8	36.3	49.6	47.8	46.5
Confectionery	87.2	91.8	95.5	86.8	89.8	98.4	18.11	17.63	18.62	39.7	38.7	41.3	45.6	45.6	45.5
Flour	75.1	76.0	76.9	74.0	76.7	80.9	25.52	26.10	27.30	42.7	43.7	45.6	58.9	58.8	59.0
Ice cream	63.7	65.1	68.8	60.4	61.5	63.9	29.25	29.16	28.54	46.6	46.5	46.1	61.7	61.3	60.1
Slaughtering and meat packing	90.9	90.5	89.4	104.7	102.3	100.1	28.89	28.31	28.01	42.2	41.1	40.8	68.0	68.1	68.8
Sugar, beet	146.1	252.1	253.0	135.8	267.4	224.3	21.98	25.09	20.97	40.4	49.6	41.6	55.6	50.8	52.4
Sugar refining, cane	75.0	70.4	68.8	72.4	66.8	64.2	26.87	26.41	25.97	43.0	40.9	38.5	60.8	62.8	66.8
Tobacco manufactures	60.8	62.9	62.6	55.7	57.2	57.9	16.88	16.72	17.33	37.1	37.4	37.6	45.5	44.9	45.1
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	56.9	56.7	56.2	67.9	63.8	68.2	18.11	17.06	18.20	35.8	33.5	35.8	51.1	51.1	51.3
Cigars and cigarettes	61.2	63.6	63.3	54.2	56.4	56.6	16.62	16.66	16.80	37.3	37.9	37.9	44.9	44.2	44.4
Paper and printing	104.1	106.4	107.9	100.8	101.5	105.1	27.62	27.48	28.26	37.6	37.7	38.7	76.5	75.7	75.6
Boxes, paper	96.9	103.3	104.8	92.8	102.6	108.9	19.78	20.42	21.35	37.3	39.0	40.8	53.4	52.8	52.7
Paper and pulp	109.4	113.6	117.3	98.8	105.4	116.7	22.47	23.26	24.90	35.6	36.9	39.5	63.1	63.2	63.1
Printing and publishing:															
Book and job	98.0	98.3	98.8	95.9	93.1	92.6	30.75	29.96	29.71	39.7	38.7	38.3	78.3	78.5	78.5
Newspapers and periodicals	106.6	107.0	107.5	108.4	106.1	107.3	38.45	37.42	37.59	37.7	37.1	37.1	99.1	97.1	97.4
Chemicals and allied products, and petroleum refining	116.3	122.7	126.5	124.4	132.1	137.5	27.93	28.07	28.32	38.0	38.5	39.2	74.3	73.8	73.4
Other than petroleum refining	115.4	122.4	126.7	123.3	129.6	136.1	25.06	25.59	25.99	38.5	39.5	40.3	66.2	65.8	65.4
Chemicals	122.6	129.8	135.2	130.4	141.7	150.6	29.51	30.25	30.84	37.4	38.7	39.6	78.9	78.2	77.9
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	109.9	121.0	127.1	104.8	113.0	118.9	13.48	13.18	13.14	55.0	53.5	54.1	24.7	24.8	24.5
Druggists' preparations	110.5	112.5	114.8	124.0	125.8	128.9	24.40	24.33	24.47	39.8	39.2	39.6	57.7	58.3	58.4

Other than petroleum refining	115.4	122.4	126.7	120.3	129.6	136.1	25.06	25.59	25.99	38.5	39.5	40.3	66.2	65.8	65.4	
Chemicals	122.6	129.8	135.2	130.4	141.7	150.6	29.51	30.25	30.84	37.4	38.7	39.6	78.9	78.2	77.9	
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	109.9	121.0	127.1	104.8	113.0	118.9	13.48	13.18	13.14	55.0	53.5	54.1	24.7	24.8	24.5	
Druggists' preparations	110.5	112.5	114.8	124.0	125.8	128.9	24.40	24.33	24.47	39.8	39.2	39.6	57.7	58.3	58.4	
Explosives	94.7	95.4	97.3	100.3	106.6	110.5	29.48	31.64	32.18	37.8	39.7	40.5	78.0	79.8	79.5	
Fertilizers	81.6	75.3	80.5	82.3	77.4	83.2	16.74	17.02	17.16	38.2	38.6	38.8	43.9	44.1	44.2	
Paints and varnishes	121.1	128.0	131.6	116.1	124.8	134.1	26.40	26.95	28.17	37.8	38.8	40.5	69.9	69.6	69.7	
Rayon and allied products	336.8	374.0	387.5	313.5	360.3	374.9	22.98	23.79	23.89	35.3	37.0	37.4	65.1	64.4	63.8	
Soap	94.6	100.4	102.8	111.2	116.9	121.1	28.58	28.23	28.55	38.7	39.2	40.0	74.3	72.4	71.9	
Petroleum refining	120.2	123.9	125.7	137.9	140.4	142.3	34.88	34.42	34.43	36.3	35.8	35.9	97.1	97.0	96.9	
Rubber products	**86.0**	**90.9**	**97.7**	**77.1**	**82.0**	**94.3**	**23.90**	**24.11**	**25.83**	**31.1**	**31.6**	**33.8**	**78.9**	**79.0**	**79.0**	
Rubber boots and shoes	68.0	71.9	77.5	54.6	62.1	70.4	20.08	21.70	22.83	33.6	35.9	37.5	59.8	60.4	60.9	
Rubber goods, other than boots, shoes, tires, and inner tubes	120.9	128.2	137.3	110.9	121.7	139.5	21.15	21.93	23.61	34.5	36.0	38.8	61.3	60.9	61.4	
Rubber tires and inner tubes	76.6	80.8	87.0	70.8	72.9	84.3	26.91	26.26	28.24	28.0	27.2	29.3	96.7	97.2	96.6	

NONMANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 12-month average 1929=100]

Coal mining:																
Anthracite	50.9	50.5	51.0	47.2	45.1	51.0	$27.02	$26.00	$29.14	28.9	28.3	31.4	92.0	90.7	91.2	
Bituminous	80.5	82.1	82.9	81.3	77.8	86.0	25.49	24.00	26.25	29.1	26.9	29.6	86.6	87.8	88.7	
Metalliferous mining	70.4	75.4	82.9	65.1	71.6	81.7	29.43	30.05	31.26	43.1	43.1	44.2	68.6	69.9	70.8	
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	43.9	49.9	53.3	33.4	41.7	49.3	19.32	21.48	23.70	34.7	38.9	42.6	55.8	55.0	55.4	
Crude-petroleum producing	76.5	77.2	77.5	69.8	70.2	69.9	34.11	34.12	33.64	40.1	39.9	39.9	83.8	84.3	83.3	
Public utilities:																
Telephone and telegraph	78.0	[2]78.9	[2]79.6	94.7	[2]91.4	[2]94.9	31.44	[2]30.12	[2]31.01	39.2	[2]37.8	[2]39.5	85.1	[2]84.4	[2]83.2	
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	96.1	97.3	98.5	102.4	103.8	105.3	34.38	34.44	34.23	40.2	40.4	40.4	85.7	85.8	85.1	
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance	72.8	73.2	73.4	71.9	71.8	71.4	32.26	32.17	31.93	45.7	45.9	45.9	69.7	69.4	68.7	
Trade:																
Wholesale	93.3	93.5	94.0	77.8	78.3	79.3	30.00	30.27	30.45	42.5	42.7	42.9	69.9	70.6	70.6	
Retail	100.1	91.7	92.1	80.6	75.3	75.9	21.55	21.65	21.96	43.2	42.7	43.0	54.8	55.9	56.5	
General merchandising	144.7	109.8	108.1	123.5	97.1	96.2	18.59	18.37	18.55	40.4	39.2	39.4	50.1	51.2	51.5	
Other than general merchandising	88.4	86.9	87.9	71.7	70.8	71.7	24.57	24.55	24.89	44.4	43.9	44.2	56.9	57.5	58.1	
Hotels (year-round) [3]	87.3	88.9	89.2	76.3	77.9	77.7	15.25	15.25	15.11	47.4	47.2	47.1	32.2	32.2	31.7	
Laundries	87.3	88.0	89.9	79.2	79.2	81.5	17.03	16.90	16.96	42.0	41.6	42.1	40.5	40.7	40.3	
Dyeing and cleaning	77.1	80.5	85.9	58.9	63.3	71.8	19.09	19.53	20.89	40.2	40.8	42.5	49.1	49.1	50.5	
Brokerage [4]	−1.6	+.8	−2.9	−2.6	+1.1	−3.2	38.36	38.60	38.52	([5])	([5])	([5])	([5])	([5])	([5])	
Insurance [4]	+.2	−.1	−.1	−.8	+1.8	+.3	38.91	39.15	38.45	([5])	([5])	([5])	([5])	([5])	([5])	
Building construction [3]	−17.2	−6.4	−3.3	−22.7	−8.1	−3.0	28.53	30.52	31.22	30.9	33.1	34.3	91.9	91.6	90.8	

[1] Average weekly earnings are computed from figures furnished by all reporting establishments. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a small number of establishments as all reporting firms do not furnish man-hours. The figures are not strictly comparable from month to month because of changes in the size and composition of the reporting sample.

[2] Revised.

[3] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

[4] Indexes of employment and pay rolls not available; percentage changes from preceding month substituted.

[5] Not available.

INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS

Indexes of employment and pay rolls are given in tables 2 and 3 for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for 13 nonmanufacturing industries, including 2 subgroups under retail trade, by months, from January 1936 to December 1937, inclusive. The accompanying chart indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to December 1937.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are computed from returns supplied by representative establishments in 89 manufacturing industries and cover wage earners only. The base used in computing these indexes is the 3-year average, 1923–25, as 100. In December 1937 reports were received from 25,041 manufacturing establishments employing 4,327,180 workers, whose weekly earnings were $99,195,710. The employment reports received from these establishments cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 89 industries included in the monthly survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in the Durable- and Nondurable-Goods Groups* [1]

[Adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures—3-year average 1923–25=100]

Month	Manufacturing											
	Total				Durable goods [2]				Nondurable goods [3]			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	86.8	96.5	73.8	90.7	78.7	90.4	66.9	86.6	95.4	103.0	82.5	96.0
February	86.9	99.0	73.7	95.8	78.6	93.2	66.6	92.5	95.8	105.2	82.7	99.9
March	87.9	101.1	77.6	101.1	80.2	96.4	71.8	100.0	96.1	106.1	84.9	102.6
April	89.1	102.1	79.3	104.9	82.3	98.6	76.0	106.4	96.3	105.9	83.5	102.9
May	89.8	102.3	80.8	105.2	84.0	99.9	78.5	107.5	96.0	104.8	83.8	102.3
June	90.1	101.1	81.1	102.9	84.7	98.8	79.0	104.6	95.9	103.5	83.9	100.8
July	91.2	101.4	80.2	100.4	84.6	98.9	75.9	100.7	98.2	104.1	85.6	100.0
August	93.5	102.3	83.5	103.8	84.7	98.1	77.0	104.0	102.8	106.9	91.8	103.5
September	95.5	102.1	83.6	100.1	85.7	97.3	77.2	99.4	105.9	107.3	91.6	100.9
October	96.7	100.5	89.0	100.1	89.2	97.6	85.3	101.7	104.7	103.6	93.7	98.2
November	96.9	94.7	90.7	89.5	91.0	92.4	88.9	89.9	103.3	97.3	92.9	89.0
December	98.1	88.6	95.2	80.9	92.7	84.3	93.4	77.0	104.0	93.3	97.5	85.8
Average	91.9	99.3	82.4	98.0	84.7	95.5	78.0	97.5	99.5	103.4	87.9	98.5

[1] Comparable indexes for earlier years will be found in the April 1937 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

[2] Includes the following groups of manufacturing industries: Iron and steel; machinery; transportation equipment; railroad repair shops; nonferrous metals; lumber and allied products; and stone, clay, and glass products.

[3] Includes the following groups of manufacturing industries: Textiles and their products, leather and its manufactures, food and kindred products, tobacco manufactures, paper and printing, chemicals and allied products, products of petroleum and coal, rubber products, and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.

EMPLOYMENT & PAY ROLLS
ALL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES
1923-25=100
Index Numbers
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
Employment
Pay Rolls
1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924 1925 1926 1927 1928 1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

The indexes for nonmanufacturing industries are based on the 12-month average for 1929 as 100. Figures for mining, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and building construction cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, trade, hotels, brokerage, and insurance relate to all employees, including executives. For crude-petroleum producing they cover wage earners and clerical field force.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1936 to December 1937* [1]

[12-month average 1929=100]

Month	Anthracite mining				Bituminous-coal mining				Metalliferous mining				Quarrying and nonmetallic mining			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	59.1	54.1	54.4	42.7	79.8	84.6	70.6	79.9	54.2	66.8	41.7	58.4	39.4	45.7	25.5	34.6
February	61.2	52.7	76.7	41.0	80.2	84.8	78.4	82.4	55.5	69.6	42.8	63.4	36.9	46.7	23.9	37.8
March	52.5	48.9	42.6	37.8	80.4	85.9	70.2	88.4	55.9	73.1	45.1	70.6	42.2	49.1	30.9	41.3
April	49.8	54.0	28.6	63.9	77.5	72.6	62.6	54.4	57.5	76.2	45.5	76.9	48.4	53.1	36.1	48.1
May	54.9	51.0	56.3	44.4	76.2	77.8	62.2	67.8	60.8	78.5	47.7	79.8	52.0	54.9	42.1	51.4
June	51.2	51.1	42.0	50.9	75.7	77.9	61.5	71.2	61.9	79.5	48.2	77.7	53.5	55.4	44.0	52.6
July	48.4	45.0	37.2	35.2	75.5	75.8	62.6	66.4	61.3	82.0	46.1	77.8	54.4	55.5	43.9	50.8
August	41.1	41.2	31.4	27.2	76.9	78.8	65.4	73.8	61.6	83.4	48.2	83.0	55.3	54.9	46.2	53.2
September	47.6	48.2	34.9	31.5	78.2	80.5	71.0	77.7	63.1	84.1	50.0	82.2	54.9	54.7	44.8	50.1
October	49.9	51.0	48.5	51.0	81.1	82.9	79.2	86.0	64.2	82.9	53.7	81.7	54.6	53.3	46.2	49.3
November	51.5	50.5	40.3	45.1	82.3	82.1	80.7	77.8	62.9	75.4	54.6	71.6	52.6	49.9	43.5	41.7
December	54.8	50.9	55.4	47.2	83.9	80.5	85.0	81.3	64.4	70.4	57.7	65.1	49.4	43.9	39.4	33.4
Average	51.8	49.9	45.7	43.2	79.0	80.4	70.8	75.6	60.3	76.8	48.4	74.0	49.5	51.4	38.9	45.4

Month	Crude-petroleum producing				Telephone and telegraph				Electric light and power, and manufactured gas				Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance [2]			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	71.1	72.7	55.7	61.2	70.1	74.4	75.0	83.6	86.1	92.1	84.8	92.3	70.7	72.5	65.0	68.0
February	70.8	73.5	55.7	64.1	69.9	74.8	76.2	82.2	86.1	92.2	84.7	93.6	71.7	72.5	68.3	68.7
March	70.9	74.2	56.0	63.9	70.2	75.4	77.2	87.2	86.8	92.4	85.9	94.8	71.2	72.6	67.8	69.2
April	71.3	75.8	57.1	67.7	70.8	76.6	76.0	86.3	88.0	93.1	86.2	95.5	71.3	72.9	65.9	69.4
May	72.7	76.7	58.0	68.2	71.6	77.7	78.5	89.5	89.0	94.6	87.0	97.9	71.5	73.3	66.1	70.1
June	73.7	78.5	58.9	70.4	72.1	78.5	77.4	88.6	90.4	96.3	88.1	100.4	71.7	73.3	66.8	71.1
July	75.4	78.5	60.4	70.5	73.1	79.7	79.9	92.1	91.7	97.5	89.8	102.2	72.4	73.4	66.5	70.8
August	75.0	79.3	59.7	70.8	73.5	79.8	81.2	92.1	93.1	98.3	89.8	102.6	72.4	73.4	66.5	73.1
September	74.5	78.2	60.4	71.2	73.7	[3]79.8	78.8	92.3	93.5	98.6	91.4	104.0	72.8	73.7	66.4	71.6
October	73.6	77.5	59.6	69.9	73.8	[3]79.6	83.1	[3]94.9	94.0	98.5	92.7	105.3	73.1	73.4	67.7	71.4
November	73.2	77.2	60.1	70.2	73.7	[3]78.9	81.6	[3]91.4	93.5	97.3	91.8	103.8	73.0	73.2	69.7	[3]71.8
December	72.4	76.0	61.3	69.8	73.6	78.0	82.4	94.7	93.2	96.1	93.8	102.4	72.5	72.8	69.3	71.9
Average	72.9	76.5	58.6	68.2	72.2	77.8	78.9	89.6	90.5	95.6	88.8	99.6	72.0	73.1	67.2	70.6

[1] Comparable indexes for earlier years for all of these industries, except year-round hotels, will be found in the February 1935 and subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Comparable indexes for year-round hotels will be found in the September 1935 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

[2] Not including electric-railroad car building and repairing; see transportation equipment and railroad repair-shop groups, manufacturing industries, table 1.

[3] Revised.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1936 to December 1937*—Continued

Month	Wholesale trade				Total retail trade				Retail trade—general merchandising				Retail trade—other than general merchandising			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	85.6	90.7	66.6	72.6	80.4	85.4	62.1	68.0	88.2	95.1	76.4	83.8	78.4	82.9	59.1	64.7
February	85.0	92.0	66.6	74.1	79.7	85.2	61.6	67.9	85.1	93.9	73.9	82.9	78.3	82.9	59.1	64.8
March	85.6	92.1	69.0	75.0	81.9	88.5	63.5	70.5	90.9	100.3	77.3	87.6	79.5	85.4	60.7	67.0
April	85.7	91.9	67.9	75.4	85.2	88.8	65.3	71.9	97.4	99.6	81.0	89.1	82.0	86.0	62.1	68.3
May	84.6	90.8	68.2	76.1	85.0	89.9	65.8	73.5	95.5	102.1	80.8	91.5	82.3	86.7	62.7	69.8
June	84.6	90.3	68.4	76.3	85.5	90.5	66.4	74.4	96.4	102.9	81.3	92.5	82.6	87.2	63.3	70.6
July	85.4	90.6	69.0	76.9	83.2	87.6	65.1	72.8	90.7	95.9	77.3	87.3	81.2	85.4	62.6	69.8
August	86.3	91.8	69.7	79.0	82.4	86.2	64.4	72.3	89.4	93.8	76.4	85.7	80.5	84.2	61.9	69.5
September	88.0	93.0	70.5	78.3	86.6	90.7	66.6	74.4	98.5	103.7	82.8	92.4	83.5	87.3	63.3	70.7
October	89.0	94.0	71.5	79.3	88.7	92.1	68.3	75.9	103.9	108.1	87.2	96.2	84.7	87.9	64.4	71.7
November	89.7	93.5	73.1	78.3	90.1	91.7	70.1	75.3	109.3	109.8	91.4	97.1	85.1	86.9	65.7	70.8
December	91.0	93.3	72.8	77.8	99.6	100.1	75.9	80.6	143.4	144.7	116.2	123.5	88.1	88.4	67.6	71.7
Average	86.7	92.0	69.4	76.6	85.7	89.7	66.3	73.1	99.1	104.2	83.5	92.5	82.2	85.9	62.7	69.1

Month	Year-round hotels				Laundries				Dyeing and cleaning			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	81.9	85.5	64.9	70.4	81.5	88.5	68.3	76.4	71.5	76.8	51.6	55.6
February	82.8	86.4	66.5	72.5	81.2	88.6	67.8	76.3	70.3	76.2	49.0	54.6
March	82.8	86.9	66.0	72.7	82.1	88.7	69.9	77.5	74.7	81.1	56.4	61.7
April	83.2	88.4	66.3	74.5	83.2	88.5	70.9	78.5	81.8	84.9	64.1	68.8
May	84.1	87.7	67.0	73.6	85.5	90.3	75.6	81.4	87.3	88.6	72.2	73.9
June	83.9	86.9	66.6	74.0	87.2	93.5	75.8	85.5	87.5	92.1	69.2	79.2
July	83.3	86.1	66.0	73.3	90.5	95.2	79.0	86.9	85.5	[1]86.3	64.8	[1]68.3
August	83.2	86.8	66.1	74.4	89.6	94.2	76.7	86.0	83.5	[1]85.8	63.2	[1]69.8
September	84.2	88.1	67.5	76.1	89.6	93.7	76.6	84.4	86.7	[1]87.7	66.1	[1]73.6
October	85.4	89.2	69.6	77.7	87.6	89.9	75.3	81.5	86.5	[1]85.9	66.7	[1]71.8
November	84.6	88.9	69.6	77.9	87.0	88.0	74.5	79.2	81.3	[1]80.5	60.2	[1]63.3
December	84.0	87.3	69.8	76.3	87.6	87.3	76.1	79.2	77.7	77.1	57.3	58.9
Average	83.6	87.4	67.2	74.5	86.1	90.5	73.9	81.1	81.2	83.6	61.7	66.6

[1] Revised.

General indexes of factory employment and pay rolls by yearly averages, 1923 to 1937, inclusive, and by months, January to December 1937, inclusive, are given in the Bureau's monthly report on Employment and Pay Rolls for December 1937, copies of which will be furnished upon request. That pamphlet also contains indexes for the same periods, where available, for each of the 89 manufacturing industries surveyed, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups, and for the 14 smaller groups and 2 subgroups into which they are classified.

The indexes have been adjusted to conform with the annual averages and totals shown in published reports of the Census of Manufactures through 1933, and are subject to further revision when adjustments are made to bring them into conformity with later census data.

Building Operations

SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, JANUARY 1938 [1]

BUILDING activity as measured by the value of permits issued showed a pronounced increase (14.9 percent) in January 1938 over the preceding month. The value of new residential buildings for which permits were issued in January showed a gain of 53.4 percent compared with December 1937. While this increase was most marked in cities having a population of half a million or over, increases were also shown in cities having a population of between 100,000 and 500,000 and in cities between 50,000 and 100,000. The most pronounced increase occurred in New York City where the date of effectiveness of the new building code was changed from January 1 to January 27. The value of new nonresidential buildings was 13.3 percent lower and additions, alterations, and repairs 13.2 percent lower than in December.

Compared with January 1937 permit valuations showed an increase of more than 79 percent. All classes of construction registered gains. The greatest increase, 129.1 percent, was in new residential construction. New nonresidential construction in January was 64.7 percent above the corresponding month of 1937 and additions, alterations, and repairs increased 4.4 percent.

Comparison of January 1938 With December 1937 and January 1937

A summary of building construction in 1,603 identical cities in January 1938, December 1937, and January 1937 is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued in 1,603 Identical Cities, January 1938*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Estimated cost		
	January 1938	Percentage change from—		January 1938	Percentage change from—	
		December 1937	January 1937		December 1937	January 1937
All construction	33,151	−3.2	−0.2	$174,924,551	+14.9	+79.1
New residential	8,176	+0.7	+2.4	98,637,479	+53.4	+129.1
New nonresidential	5,236	−8.2	−7.2	52,639,054	−13.3	+64.7
Additions, alterations, and repairs	19,739	−3.4	+0.8	23,648,018	−13.2	+4.4

[1] More detailed information by geographic divisions and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, January 1938", copies of which will be furnished upon request.

A summary of the estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings and the number of families provided for in new dwellings in 1,603 identical cities having a population of 2,500 and over, is shown in table 2 for the months of January 1938, December 1937, and January 1937.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Cost of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 1,603 Identical Cities, January 1938*

Type of dwelling	Estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	January 1938	Percentage change from—		January 1938	Percentage change from—	
		December 1937	January 1937		December 1937	January 1937
All types	$98,221,639	+55.5	+129.5	29,877	+85.0	+170.5
1-family	25,177,594	−6.1	−22.1	6,958	−2.3	−5.0
2-family [1]	2,822,756	−41.3	+35.9	1,214	−16.9	+50.8
Multifamily [2]	70,221,289	+122.7	+736.2	21,705	+187.0	+643.6

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Analysis by Size of City, January 1938

Table 3 shows the estimated cost of building construction for which permits were issued in January 1938, compared with December 1937 and January 1937, by size of city and by class of construction.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated Cost of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued, by Size of City, January 1938*

Size of city	Total construction			New residential buildings		
	Estimated cost, January 1938	Percentage change from—		Estimated cost, January 1938	Percentage change from—	
		December 1937	January 1937		December 1937	January 1937
Total, all reporting cities	$174,924,551	+14.9	+79.1	$98,637,479	+53.4	+129.1
500,000 and over	121,475,903	+31.6	+214.9	80,218,115	+78.8	+385.6
100,000 and under 500,000	15,757,547	−18.2	−19.7	5,948,327	+1.4	−19.3
50,000 and under 100,000	7,361,751	−18.9	−20.2	2,998,521	+6.8	−18.3
25,000 and under 50,000	8,405,756	+3.9	−16.3	2,159,139	−14.1	−46.1
10,000 and under 25,000	9,700,576	−15.1	−13.8	3,666,619	−17.0	−43.0
5,000 and under 10,000	9,224,610	+62.9	+74.7	2,373,048	−2.7	−24.8
2,500 and under 5,000	2,998,408	−53.1	−18.3	1,273,710	−7.3	−33.1
	New nonresidential buildings			Additions, alterations, and repairs		
Total, all reporting cities	$52,639,054	−13.3	+64.7	$23,648,018	−13.2	+4.4
500,000 and over	30,672,928	−16.6	+134.8	10,584,860	−0.8	+17.7
100,000 and under 500,000	5,163,103	−32.1	−31.1	4,646,117	−19.8	−2.5
50,000 and under 100,000	1,618,927	−57.0	−51.1	2,744,303	+9.9	+22.4
25,000 and under 50,000	4,193,200	+24.3	+39.4	2,053,417	−6.8	−32.1
10,000 and under 25,000	4,029,109	−20.5	+54.4	2,004,848	+3.7	−9.3
5,000 and under 10,000	5,716,073	+189.7	+360.9	1,135,489	−9.2	+28.1
2,500 and under 5,000	1,245,714	−41.4	+0.9	478,984	−83.4	−10.2

The estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings for which permits were issued in the 1,603 identical cities reporting for December 1937 and January 1938, together with the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings, by size of city, is given in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Cost of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 1,603 Identical Cities, by Size of City, December 1937 and January 1938*

Size of city	Estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in—							
				All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings[1]		Multifamily dwellings[2]	
	January 1938	December 1937	Percentage change	January 1938	December 1937	January 1938	December 1937	January 1938	December 1937	January 1938	December 1937
Total, all cities	$98,221,639	$63,166,686	+55.5	29,877	16,148	6,958	7,125	1,214	1,461	21,705	7,562
500,000 and over	80,093,115	44,615,002	+79.5	24,183	11,050	2,451	2,916	694	1,106	21,038	7,028
100,000 and under 500,000	5,948,327	5,455,573	+9.0	1,827	1,536	1,400	1,175	208	146	219	215
50,000 and under 100,000	2,757,521	2,734,164	+0.9	831	753	580	520	92	66	159	167
25,000 and under 50,000	2,159,139	2,485,990	−13.1	720	691	594	605	80	37	46	49
10,000 and under 25,000	3,633,079	4,189,022	−13.3	1,154	1,036	950	942	64	51	140	43
5,000 and under 10,000	2,369,748	2,312,680	+2.5	752	695	618	611	45	31	89	53
2,500 and under 5,000	1,260,710	1,374,255	−8.3	410	387	365	356	31	24	14	7

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The information on building permits issued January 1938, December 1937, and January 1937 is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 1,603 identical cities having a population of 2,500 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics direct from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of labor collect and forward the information to the Bureau. The cost figures shown in this report are estimates made by prospective builders on applying for permits to build. No land costs are included. Only building projects within the corporate limits of the cities enumerated are included in the Bureau's tabulation. In addition to permits issued for private building construction, the statistics include the value of contracts for Federal and State buildings in the cities covered. Information concerning public building is collected by the Bureau from various Federal and State agencies having the power to award contracts for building construction. These data are then added to the data concerning private construction received from local building officials. In January 1938 the value of Federal and State buildings for which contracts were awarded in these 1,603 cities amounted to $2,030,000; in December 1937, to $5,912,000; and in January 1937, to $3,065,000.

Construction From Public Funds

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during January 1938, December 1937, and January 1937 on construction projects financed from various Federal funds is shown in table 5.

TABLE 5.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Projects Financed from Federal Funds, January 1938, December 1937, and January 1937* [1]

Federal Agency	Value of contracts awarded and force-account work started		
	January 1938	December 1937 [2]	January 1937
Total	$64,788,938	$143,912,156	[2] $91,918,264
Public Works Administration:			
Federal	340,582	668,895	2,221,587
Nonfederal:			
N. I. R. A	1,297,977	1,837,422	[2] 4,152,609
E. R. A. A	28,853,432	60,599,926	[2] 46,014,602
Federal projects under The Works Program	1,906,480	7,488,275	[2] 12,761,357
Regular Federal appropriations	32,390,467	73,317,638	26,768,109

[1] Preliminary, subject to revision.
[2] Revised.

The value of public-building and highway construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for January 1938, December 1937, and January 1937 is shown in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Value of Public-Building and Highway-Construction Awards Financed Wholly From State Funds*

Type of project	Value of contracts		
	January 1938	December 1937	January 1937
Public buildings	$1,666,145	$4,335,282	$1,177,020
Highway construction	2,870,821	2,572,449	5,327,283

Retail Prices

SUMMARY OF FOOD AND COAL PRICES

FOOD costs were 2.8 percent lower for January than for December. The decrease resulted from lower prices for 59 of the 84 foods for which the Bureau collects retail prices. Only one index moved upward, that for fresh fruits and vegetables.

This report contains a brief review of changes in food costs in 1937. There was an average increase of 3.6 percent for the year. The increases occurred during the first 5 months. A gradual decline followed which was accentuated after September.

There was a seasonal advance in coal prices between September 15 and December 15, 1937. The increase for bituminous coal amounted to 1.8 percent. For Pennsylvania anthracite, price increases ranged from 1.4 percent for buckwheat to 3.0 percent for stove.

FOOD PRICES IN JANUARY 1938

RETAIL food costs declined 2.8 percent between December 1937 and January 1938. The decrease extended to all commodity groups except fruits and vegetables. The declines were widespread and lower costs were reported for all of the 51 cities included in the indexes.

The food-cost index for January 18 was 80.3 percent of the 1923–25 average. This was 5.1 percent lower than 1 year ago, when the index was 84.6. This decrease over a year ago was due in large part to a decline of 20.8 percent in the cost of fruits and vegetables, of 11.8 percent for fats and oils, and of 8.1 percent for eggs. Food costs were 28.3 percent higher than for January 1933 when the index was 62.6. Compared with the corresponding period in 1929, when the index was 102.7, food costs have decreased by 21.8 percent.

DETAILS BY COMMODITY GROUPS

The cost of cereals and bakery products declined 0.5 percent between December and January. Flour and white bread showed a price decrease of 0.4 percent each. Price declines were greatest for corn meal, macaroni, and rice, all of which have shown a downward movement over a period of several months. The price of flour has declined 13.5 percent below the level of a year ago. Bread has advanced 5.6 percent during the same interval.

Meat costs were 4.3 percent below the December level. The decrease was general and prices were lower for 17 of the 21 items in the group. Eleven of the decreases averaged 5.0 percent or more. For beef and veal, the decline was 6.0 percent; for pork, 4.3 percent; and for lamb, 5.3 percent. The price of roasting chickens rose 1.4 percent and canned salmon was slightly higher. Prices for both of these products are well above the average of a year ago.

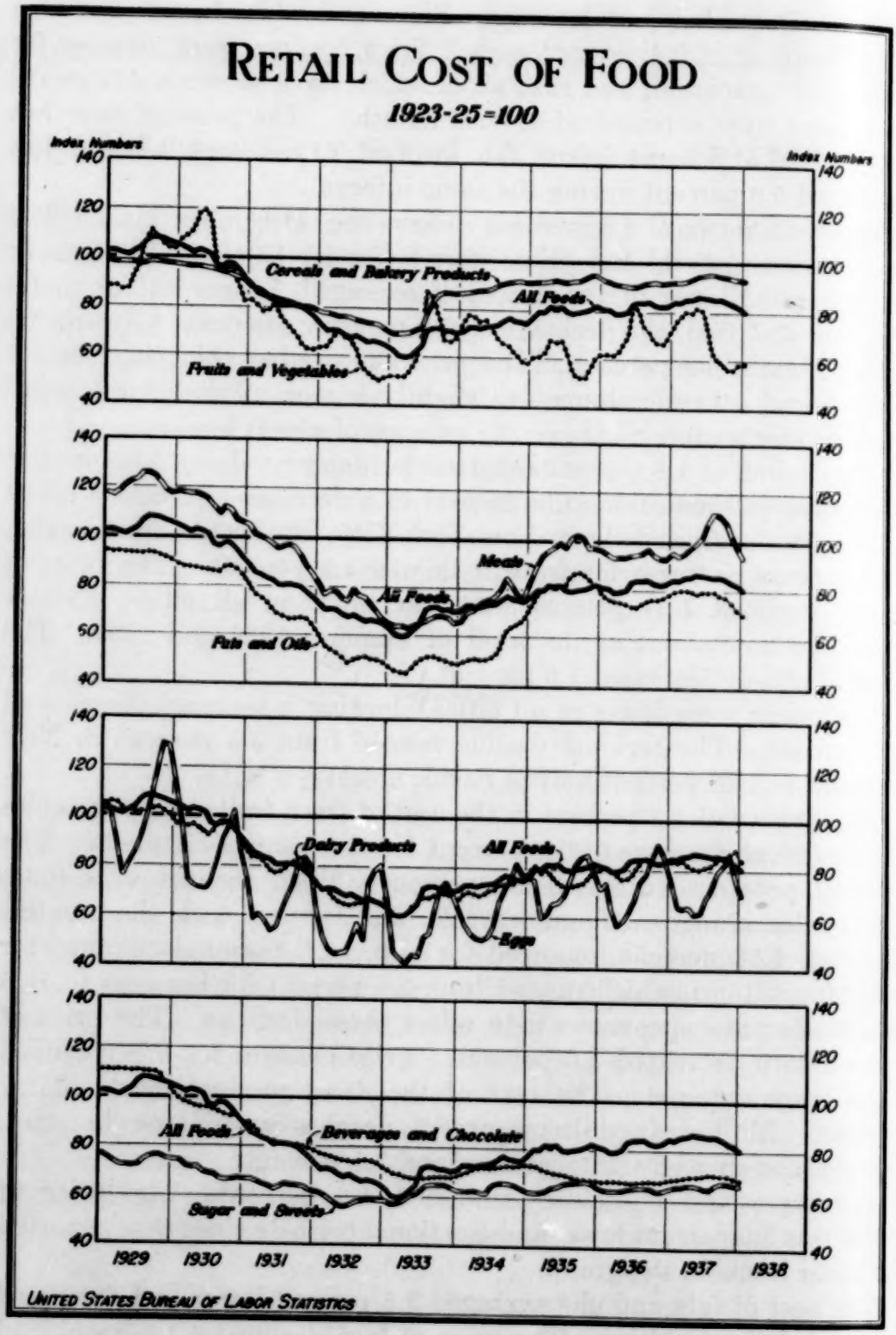
The decline of 4.8 percent reported for dairy products is somewhat more than seasonal, due in large part to a decrease of 1 cent a quart in the price of fresh milk in New York City, Rochester, and Omaha. The average decrease for fresh milk was 1.8 percent. The price of butter declined 11.1 percent and was lower in all cities. Butter prices are now about at the level of January 1936 and 1937. The price of cheese decreased 1.6 percent.

Egg prices were lower in all cities, showing a seasonal decrease of 8.6 percent. The regional decline ranged from 3.5 percent in New England to 16.9 percent on the Pacific Coast.

An advance of 1.2 percent in the cost of fresh fruits and vegetables resulted in an increase of 0.9 percent for the group as a whole. The price of potatoes decreased 0.8 percent. Price declines were more marked for oranges, lemons, carrots, and lettuce, with the greatest decrease, 12.6 percent, reported for oranges. Seasonal advances for other fresh items, which ranged from 1.6 percent for bananas to 18.5 percent for cabbage, more than offset these declines. The price of canned corn decreased 1.0 percent. Price changes for other canned items were nominal. The cost of the dried products declined 1.7 percent. All the dried items except peaches were lower in price. Navy beans showed the most decrease, 3.1 percent.

Beverages and chocolate decreased 1.6 percent. The price of coffee was 3.0 percent lower and fractional price declines were reported for other items in the group.

The cost of fats and oils averaged 2.5 percent lower and decreased in each of the 51 cities. The price of lard declined 6.1 percent and


RETAIL COST OF FOOD
1923-25=100
Index Numbers
Index Numbers
140
120
100
80
60
40
Cereals and Bakery Products
All Foods
Fruits and Vegetables
Meats
All Foods
Fats and Oils
Dairy Products
All Foods
Eggs
All Foods
Beverages and Chocolate
Sugar and Sweets
1929
1930
1931
1932
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
1938
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

was below the average reported for any pricing period since August 1934. Prices of vegetable shortening and peanut butter decreased slightly more than 1 percent. There were fractional price changes for other items in the group. The price of lard was 21.5 percent lower than a year ago. It has decreased far more than the price of any pork item.

The index for sugar and sweets declined 0.9 percent. Lower prices were reported for each item in the group. These price decreases amounted to 1.0 percent for sugar, 1.3 percent for corn sirup, 1.9 percent for molasses, and 0.7 percent for strawberry preserves.

Indexes of retail food costs for January 1938 and December 1937, together with indexes for January 1937, 1933, and 1929 are shown in table 1. The chart shows trends in the cost of all foods and of each major commodity group for the period January 1929 to December 1937, inclusive.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *by Commodity Groups*

January 1938 and December 1937, and January 1937, 1933, 1929

[1923-25=100]

Commodity group	1938, Jan. 18	1937		1933, Jan. 15	1929, Jan. 15
		Dec. 14	Jan. 12		
All foods	80.3	82.6	84.6	62.6	102.7
Cereals and bakery products	93.2	93.6	92.4	69.5	98.4
Meats	93.8	98.0	95.7	64.8	117.6
Dairy products	83.9	88.2	83.4	63.4	105.1
Eggs	70.1	76.7	76.3	66.9	105.0
Fruits and vegetables	58.9	58.4	74.4	52.3	88.2
Fresh	56.8	56.2	73.5	51.4	86.6
Canned	79.8	79.9	81.8	66.4	96.0
Dried	61.3	62.4	71.8	48.6	98.2
Beverages and chocolate	68.3	69.4	68.6	71.1	110.7
Fats and oils	70.2	72.0	79.6	46.9	94.1
Sugar and sweets	66.2	66.8	64.8	58.3	76.7

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined with the use of population weights.

The prices of 59 of the 84 items included in the index declined between December 1937 and January 1938, 20 increased, and 5 showed no change. Compared with a year ago, the January prices were higher for 57 items and lower for 27 items.

Average prices of each of the 84 foods for 51 cities combined are shown in table 2 for January 1938 and for December and January 1937.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined*[1]

January 1938 and December and January 1937

[Asterisk (*) indicates the 42 foods included in indexes prior to Jan. 1, 1935]

Article		1938	1937	
		Jan. 18	Dec. 14	Jan. 12
		Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Cereals and bakery products:				
Cereals:				
*Flour, wheat	pound	4.3	4.3	5.0
*Macaroni	do	14.9	15.2	15.3
*Wheat cereal	28-oz. package	24.4	24.5	24.2
*Corn flakes	8-oz. package	7.6	7.7	8.1
*Corn meal	pound	4.8	5.0	5.4
Hominy grits	24-oz. package	9.2	9.1	9.8
*Rice	pound	8.0	8.1	8.5
*Rolled oats	do	7.2	7.4	7.5
Bakery products:				
*Bread, white	do	8.9	8.9	8.4
Bread, whole-wheat	do	9.8	9.8	9.5
Bread, rye	do	10.0	10.0	9.7
Cake	do	24.8	25.4	25.5
Soda crackers	do	16.5	16.6	18.1
Meats:				
Beef:				
*Sirloin steak	do	36.2	39.4	40.2
*Round steak	do	32.8	36.1	36.0
*Rib roast	do	29.1	31.6	30.4
*Chuck roast	do	22.4	24.8	23.8
*Plate	do	15.6	16.9	16.4
Liver	do	24.4	24.8	25.6
Veal:				
Cutlets	do	43.8	43.6	43.0
Pork:				
*Chops	do	29.3	31.1	33.6
Loin roast	do	23.7	25.3	27.9
*Bacon, sliced	do	38.6	40.0	39.8
Bacon, strip	do	32.1	33.8	34.2
*Ham, sliced	do	45.4	47.1	49.0
Ham, whole	do	28.2	28.4	30.6
Salt pork	do	21.7	23.7	25.2
Lamb:				
Breast	do	13.3	14.7	12.1
Chuck	do	22.8	24.4	20.7
*Leg	do	28.4	29.9	26.9
Rib chops	do	36.0	38.0	34.0
Poultry:				
*Roasting chickens	do	35.9	35.4	29.8
Fish:				
Salmon, pink	16-oz. can	14.2	14.0	13.0
*Salmon, red	do	27.0	27.0	24.8
Dairy products:				
*Butter	pound	40.4	45.5	41.1
*Cheese	do	29.0	29.4	29.4
Cream	½ pint	15.0	15.0	15.3
Milk, fresh (delivered and store)[2]	quart	12.5	12.7	12.3
*Milk, fresh (delivered)	do	12.7	13.0	12.5
*Milk, evaporated	14½-oz. can	7.5	7.5	7.9
*Eggs	dozen	35.8	39.0	39.7
Fruits and vegetables:				
Fresh:				
Apples	pound	4.5	4.4	6.3
*Bananas	do	6.3	6.2	6.7
Lemons	dozen	32.9	36.8	27.6
*Oranges	do	25.0	28.6	29.1
Beans, green	pound	14.4	13.9	12.1
*Cabbage	do	4.4	3.7	3.8
Carrots	bunch	5.7	5.8	5.9
Celery	stalk	8.8	8.8	9.9
Lettuce	head	7.5	8.1	7.9
*Onions	pound	4.8	4.3	3.3
*Potatoes	do	2.0	2.0	3.7
Spinach	do	8.5	8.1	7.1
Sweetpotatoes	do	3.8	3.7	4.3
Canned:				
Peaches	no. 2½ can	19.5	19.5	18.6
Pears	do	21.6	21.7	22.1
Pineapple	do	23.1	23.1	22.5

[1] Prices for individual cities are combined with the use of population weights.

[2] Average prices of milk delivered by dairies and sold in grocery stores, weighted according to the relative proportion distributed by each method.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined*—Continued

January 1938 and December and January 1937

[Asterisk (*) indicates the 42 foods included in indexes prior to Jan. 1, 1935]

Article		1938	1937	
		Jan. 18	Dec. 14	Jan. 12
Fruits and vegetables—Continued.				
Canned—Continued.		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Asparagus	no. 2 can	30.2	30.1	27.2
Beans, green	do	11.5	11.5	12.2
*Beans with pork	16-oz. can	7.6	7.6	7.5
*Corn	no. 2 can	12.0	12.1	13.0
*Peas	do	15.9	16.0	16.3
*Tomatoes	do	9.0	9.0	9.5
Tomato soup	10½-oz. can	7.4	7.4	8.1
Dried:				
Peaches	pound	15.8	16.2	17.6
*Prunes	do	9.6	9.8	10.5
*Raisins	15-oz. package	10.1	10.2	9.8
Black-eyed peas	pound	8.1	8.3	9.7
Lima beans	do	9.4	9.7	11.8
*Navy beans	do	6.6	6.9	9.5
Beverages and chocolate:				
*Coffee	do	24.2	25.0	24.9
*Tea	¼ pound	17.6	17.7	[1] 17.9
Cocoa	8-oz. can	9.1	9.8	10.1
Chocolate	8-oz. package	16.1	16.5	16.1
Fats and oils:				
*Lard	pound	13.8	14.7	17.7
Lard compound	do	13.4	13.5	16.0
*Vegetable shortening	do	19.9	20.1	21.6
Salad oil	pint	25.0	25.2	25.4
Mayonnaise	½ pint	17.5	17.5	16.9
*Oleomargarine	pound	17.5	17.6	19.4
Peanut butter	do	18.8	19.0	18.9
Sugar and sweets:				
*Sugar	do	5.5	5.6	5.6
Corn sirup	24-oz. can	14.2	14.4	14.3
Molasses	18-oz. can	14.1	14.4	14.4
Strawberry preserves	pound	22.2	22.4	21.1

[1] Converted to quarter pound for comparison with 1938.

DETAILS BY REGIONS AND CITIES

The average decrease for the 51 cities included in the index was 2.8 percent. Regional declines were greatest in New England and the Middle Atlantic area, where they amounted to more than 3.0 percent. In the Central and Southern cities, the decrease was slightly more than 2.0 percent. There was less decrease in the Mountain area and on the Pacific Coast.

In New Haven, where costs declined most, meats went down 9.9 percent and white bread was 3.0 percent lower. The heavy decline for New York City and Omaha was due to marked decreases in meats and dairy products, including a decline of 1 cent a quart in the price of fresh milk. In Providence, which reported a decrease of 4.3 percent, the price of flour was 4.1 percent lower and white bread decreased 3.3 percent.

Indexes of retail costs of food by cities and regions are given in table 3 for January 1938 and December 1937 and for January of earlier years.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Regions and Cities* [1]

January 1938 and December 1937 and January 1937, 1936, 1933, 1932, 1929

[1923-25=100]

City and regional area	1938, Jan. 18	1937, Dec. 14	1937, Jan. 12	1936, Jan. 14	1933, Jan. 15	1932, Jan. 15	1929, Jan. 15
United States	**80.3**	**82.6**	**84.6**	**81.7**	**62.6**	**72.8**	**102.7**
New England	**78.4**	**81.0**	**82.7**	**79.9**	**64.0**	**73.8**	**102.1**
Boston	76.7	78.7	80.3	77.8	63.0	72.4	101.5
Bridgeport	83.4	86.6	88.1	86.3	67.3	76.9	102.3
Fall River	82.0	84.6	84.8	80.9	61.8	72.1	103.3
Manchester	80.0	82.1	86.5	82.8	62.6	71.1	101.4
New Haven	82.0	86.1	87.6	84.9	66.9	78.8	103.9
Portland, Maine	78.7	81.4	83.2	79.8	63.6	74.0	102.5
Providence	77.1	80.6	83.2	79.0	63.4	72.1	101.2
Middle Atlantic	**81.1**	**84.0**	**84.9**	**83.1**	**64.3**	**73.5**	**102.8**
Buffalo	80.4	81.8	82.8	81.3	61.5	69.3	103.2
Newark	82.9	85.6	86.1	83.9	67.6	75.7	103.0
New York	81.9	86.0	84.7	84.3	67.2	75.9	103.0
Philadelphia	81.8	83.9	87.7	84.7	63.4	72.9	101.6
Pittsburgh	79.3	81.1	83.1	80.2	59.2	69.7	104.7
Rochester	79.8	82.8	83.9	81.4	60.0	70.4	100.6
Scranton	75.4	77.0	81.8	78.9	61.7	71.7	103.5
East North Central	**80.9**	**82.9**	**85.2**	**81.4**	**60.3**	**72.3**	**103.9**
Chicago	81.8	84.2	86.3	82.2	61.9	75.8	105.4
Cincinnati	81.7	83.3	87.5	84.8	62.4	75.2	105.8
Cleveland	80.2	81.9	82.0	79.8	58.8	69.6	101.1
Columbus, Ohio	79.3	81.0	84.8	82.4	59.7	70.8	102.9
Detroit	80.6	82.5	84.8	81.1	57.3	67.6	103.3
Indianapolis	79.7	81.6	85.6	81.1	59.4	70.1	104.4
Milwaukee	84.2	85.7	88.8	82.4	63.3	76.5	103.8
Peoria	80.5	82.5	86.9	82.4	60.8	70.6	103.0
Springfield, Ill	77.8	80.9	85.3	79.0	59.6	69.0	102.4
West North Central	**82.3**	**84.2**	**89.5**	**84.0**	**61.3**	**72.6**	**103.5**
Kansas City	80.8	82.0	88.4	81.5	63.3	72.6	103.7
Minneapolis	85.5	87.1	93.2	87.0	61.9	75.0	103.9
Omaha	76.5	79.9	85.5	80.3	58.0	69.9	101.4
St. Louis	84.6	86.3	90.8	86.2	61.1	72.5	104.6
St. Paul	82.0	83.9	88.6	83.4	61.7	73.3	102.1
South Atlantic	**79.2**	**81.0**	**84.1**	**82.0**	**61.5**	**71.6**	**101.0**
Atlanta	73.7	76.6	81.4	78.3	57.3	67.1	103.6
Baltimore	84.7	86.1	88.2	85.1	64.0	73.5	100.0
Charleston, S. C	80.6	82.2	83.9	82.2	61.8	73.4	100.4
Jacksonville	78.4	79.4	80.1	79.7	56.9	68.5	96.0
Norfolk	79.2	79.8	84.4	82.9	62.7	76.2	105.5
Richmond	74.4	76.0	81.6	78.7	59.3	69.1	98.6
Savannah	79.8	80.8	82.7	81.9	61.7	71.2	101.6
Washington, D. C	80.9	83.6	86.3	85.3	65.2	73.8	103.0
East South Central	**75.5**	**77.2**	**80.4**	**76.7**	**57.5**	**67.6**	**102.2**
Birmingham	71.3	72.8	75.7	71.9	55.0	64.9	100.2
Louisville	84.8	86.9	90.1	87.4	61.4	71.9	106.4
Memphis	76.9	78.5	83.4	77.7	59.6	69.9	102.7
Mobile	75.1	76.6	78.2	76.5	59.4	68.6	100.9
West South Central	**78.9**	**80.7**	**82.9**	**80.2**	**60.3**	**71.5**	**102.1**
Dallas	75.8	78.7	81.3	79.8	60.2	70.6	103.3
Houston	78.8	80.3	82.2	79.2	57.3	70.4	99.7
Little Rock	76.5	78.5	82.1	78.3	55.5	66.1	104.3
New Orleans	83.7	84.2	86.0	83.3	65.6	75.7	103.1
Mountain	**83.4**	**84.8**	**88.6**	**83.7**	**62.9**	**71.3**	**99.5**
Butte	77.8	80.5	83.5	77.5	61.6	74.8	100.5
Denver	86.1	87.8	91.8	86.0	65.6	72.0	99.3
Salt Lake City	80.0	80.9	84.5	81.1	58.6	69.1	99.5
Pacific	**78.6**	**80.0**	**82.2**	**78.9**	**64.2**	**[2] 73.0**	**101.0**
Los Angeles	74.0	74.9	78.9	74.6	61.4	70.6	99.0
Portland, Oreg	80.9	82.3	83.4	79.9	62.8	70.9	100.6
San Francisco	83.1	85.1	84.3	82.7	68.5	[2] 76.5	103.7
Seattle	80.1	81.5	86.2	81.3	62.7	72.7	100.4

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined for regions and for the United States with the use of population weights.

[2] Revised.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics collects prices in eight cities that cannot be included in the food-cost indexes, since no prices are available for the 1923–25 base period. These cities were selected from areas which were not adequately represented by the 51 cities in the current food-cost indexes.

Average prices for each of these cities for which data were available have been released since June 1935. Consumption weights have been provided for these cities, making it possible to measure changes in food costs from one period to another. Percentage changes in food costs between December 1937 and January 1938 are shown in table 4 for seven of these eight cities.

TABLE 4.—*Percentage Changes in Retail Food Costs for Specified Cities*

January 1938 Compared with December 1937

Region and city	Percentage change Jan. 18, 1938, compared with Dec. 14, 1937								
	All foods	Cereals and bakery products	Meats	Dairy products	Eggs	Fruits and vegetables	Beverages and chocolate	Fats and oils	Sugar and sweets
West North Central:									
Cedar Rapids	−1.3	−0.1	−3.4	−3.1	−12.8	+4.1	−0.5	−2.2	+0.4
Sioux Falls	−2.9	+1.0	−5.4	−5.2	−13.9	+.5	−1.7	−2.0	−.4
Wichita	−2.7	−.6	−5.6	−3.6	−16.3	+2.0	−2.6	−1.1	0
South Atlantic: Winston-Salem	−.8	−1.1	−1.7	−.4	−10.7	+2.1	−.7	−2.4	+.7
East South Central: Jackson	−1.5	−2.1	−2.7	−2.6	−10.1	+3.3	+2.5	−1.9	−2.4
West South Central:									
El Paso	−3.5	−1.0	−.9	−4.3	−10.1	−7.6	−2.6	−1.7	+2.0
Oklahoma City	−5.0	−.6	−8.0	−5.4	−7.6	−6.1	−4.4	−1.9	−.4

Prices for the Year 1937

On the basis of annual averages, the retail cost of food advanced 3.6 percent between 1936 and 1937. The index rose from 82.1 percent of the 1923–25 average in 1936 to 85.1 percent in 1937. Although the index had risen in 1937 to a level 28.2 percent above 1933, it was still 18.3 percent below 1929.

Retail food costs showed a definite upward trend during the first 5 months of 1937. The slight downward tendency during the succeeding 4 months was followed by a sharp decline during the last quarter of the year which carried the index 0.4 percent below the level of December 1936.

The most significant features of 1937 food costs were the relatively high level of meat costs and the sharp drop between May and September in fresh fruit and vegetable costs and their continued low level for the remainder of the year.

DETAILS BY COMMODITY GROUPS

Cereal and bakery products costs for 1937 were 2.8 percent above 1936. These costs rose during the first half of 1937 along with the rising bread prices. Bread prices continued at the June level throughout the remainder of the year. The price of flour, which showed practically no change during the first half of the year, made a substantial decline from July to the end of the year. The cost index for cereal and bakery products moved downward at the same time.

The annual average costs of meats in 1937 were 7.8 percent above the 1936 level. This is the only group where costs for 1937 were higher than the average for the 1923–25 base period. The group index which rose sharply between March and August declined abruptly during the last quarter of the year. The pattern of price changes for both beef and pork was similar to the movement of the meat index.

Although the costs for dairy products in 1937 averaged 3.7 percent higher than for 1936, changes in the index during 1937 followed rather closely the usual seasonal movement of costs for this group. The trend of the index was downward from January to June, when it began the upward movement that continued until December. Advances in the last quarter of the year raised the December 1937 index 7.0 percent above the level for December 1936.

Seasonal influences were dominant in the 1937 movement of egg prices. Variations in these prices during the year, however, were restricted to a much smaller range than usual. Prices throughout the year averaged 1.8 percent below 1936.

Fruits and vegetables shared with eggs the distinction of being the only food groups whose costs were lower in 1937 than in 1936. This group showed the slight decrease of 0.1 percent. The group index is largely controlled by changes in the costs of the fresh items and the index for the fresh products was 1.5 percent below that reported for 1936. Although fresh fruit and vegetable prices ordinarily decline during the summer and fall months, the drop which took place after May was exceptionally large. Reductions of more than 45.0 percent occurred in the prices of apples, potatoes, sweetpotatoes, and cabbage during these months, while the index for all fresh items fell 34.3 percent. The index for the canned items averaged 2.9 percent higher than for the previous year. The prices of these items fluctuated within a narrow range throughout the entire year. Dried fruits and vegetables, for which there was an average increase of 17.6 percent over 1936, showed comparatively little change during the first 8 months of the year. The decline between August and December was due in large measure to the drop in the price of dried beans. The price of navy beans increased 13.0 percent between January and April to a 6-year high. The decline which was first indicated in August brought the price for December down to a more normal level.

The annual average for fats and oils indicates that costs in 1937 were 3.7 percent above those for 1936. During the first 9 months of 1937 there was little change from month to month, although costs throughout this entire period were higher than in 1936. Price reductions for lard and lard compound contributed very largely to the decline which occurred during the last quarter of the year.

Due to a gradual advance in the prices of coffee and tea throughout the greater part of 1937, the index for beverages and chocolate was 3.4 percent higher than for 1936. The average cost of sugar and sweets was 2.5 percent higher in 1937 than in 1936. This increase was shown for corresponding months throughout the year. Higher prices for each item in this group contributed to this advance.

Indexes of retail food costs are summarized in table 5 by major commodity groups for each year from 1929 to 1937 and for each month of 1937.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *by Commodity Groups*

1929 to 1937, Inclusive

[1923-25=100]

Year, month, and day	All foods	Cereals and bakery products	Meats	Dairy products	Eggs	Fruits and vegetables				Beverages and chocolate	Fats and oils	Sugar and sweets
						Total	Fresh	Canned	Dried			
	By years											
1929	104.7	93.1	121.1	102.9	101.2	98.4	98.1	96.8	103.8	110.0	93.1	74.6
1930	90.6	95.1	113.6	95.1	85.4	103.4	104.9	92.3	96.4	95.7	86.7	70.1
1931	82.0	83.5	96.4	80.8	67.2	73.3	72.9	80.3	72.1	83.2	70.4	64.7
1932	68.3	75.5	75.5	66.7	57.9	60.4	59.9	71.0	55.4	75.1	52.0	58.4
1933	66.4	77.4	65.7	65.2	55.3	65.8	66.6	68.5	53.6	68.4	48.6	61.5
1934	74.1	91.0	75.0	71.2	62.4	69.8	69.6	80.7	61.3	71.7	55.4	63.8
1935	80.4	92.9	96.1	76.7	73.5	60.6	58.6	82.7	61.8	70.3	81.5	65.0
1936	82.1	91.7	94.7	80.2	72.7	69.7	69.1	79.8	61.9	67.5	75.6	64.4
1937	85.1	94.3	102.1	83.2	71.4	69.6	68.1	82.1	72.5	69.8	78.4	66.0
	By price-reporting periods for 1937											
Jan. 12	84.6	92.4	95.7	83.4	76.3	74.4	73.5	81.8	71.8	68.6	79.6	64.8
Feb. 16	84.5	92.6	94.3	83.0	65.0	78.2	77.7	82.2	74.5	68.9	80.1	65.6
Mar. 16	85.4	92.9	95.4	83.6	64.3	80.5	80.1	82.6	76.0	69.3	80.3	65.6
Apr. 13	85.6	93.8	97.7	81.6	64.7	80.0	79.5	82.8	76.4	69.6	80.2	66.0
May 18	86.5	95.2	99.7	80.1	61.8	83.1	83.0	83.2	76.6	69.7	78.9	66.1
June 15	86.3	95.6	102.3	79.7	62.5	79.2	78.5	83.4	76.6	70.0	79.5	65.7
July 13	85.9	95.7	107.8	80.9	68.0	69.0	67.0	83.5	76.3	70.4	79.5	65.1
Aug. 17	85.5	95.6	111.6	81.9	71.9	61.0	58.0	82.7	75.0	70.7	79.9	64.8
Sept. 14	85.8	95.1	111.4	83.9	79.0	59.2	56.3	82.0	72.2	70.4	78.4	66.5
Oct. 12	84.9	94.7	108.8	85.1	81.6	56.5	53.5	81.0	67.9	70.3	77.5	67.4
Nov. 16	83.6	94.0	102.8	86.6	84.9	56.2	53.5	80.5	64.1	70.1	74.8	67.1
Dec. 14	82.6	93.7	98.0	88.2	76.7	58.4	56.2	79.9	62.4	69.4	72.0	66.8

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined with the use of population weights.

A comparison with the preceding year indicates that prices of 67 of the 84 foods included in the index averaged higher in 1937 while 17 were lower. Details by individual items and indexes by cities are given in the Retail Price monthly report for January 1938, copies of which will be furnished upon request.

COAL PRICES IN DECEMBER 1937

THE rise in retail coal prices between September 15 and December 15 was largely seasonal. The average price of bituminous coal in 38 cities combined increased 1.8 percent during this period. At the same time the weighted average price of Pennsylvania anthracite in 25 cities combined advanced 3.0 percent for the stove size and 2.7 percent for the chestnut. Pea- and buckwheat-size anthracite were added to the Bureau's retail coal-price series in 1937. During the last quarter of the year the average price of the pea size rose 2.1 percent. Buckwheat prices advanced 1.4 percent.

The December 15 indexes (October 1922–September 1925=100) were 90.1 for the bituminous coal, 79.1 for stove-size Pennsylvania anthracite, and 80.3 for the chestnut size. The bituminous-coal index was 2.2 percent above the December 1936 level, while the stove- and chestnut-size anthracite showed reductions for the year of 5.6 and 4.7 percent respectively.

Retail coal prices are collected each quarter from representative dealers in 51 cities throughout the United States. These quotations are based on the cash delivered price in 1-ton lots of the grades and sizes of coal which predominate in sales to household users in each city. The price series for bituminous coal covers 38 cities, 14 of which report on low-volatile or smokeless coal as well as high-volatile. The Pennsylvania anthracite series includes 25 cities, and 6 western cities usually report prices for anthracite other than Pennsylvania.

Combined average retail prices of bituminous coal in 38 cities and Pennsylvania anthracite in 25 cities of the United States are presented in table 8 for December and September 1937 and December 1936.

TABLE 8.—*Average Retail Prices of Coal in Large Cities Combined December and September 1937, and December 1936*

Article	Average retail price per ton of 2,000 pounds			Index of retail price (October 1922–September 1925=100)			Percentage change, Dec. 15, 1937, compared with—	
	1937		1936	1937		1936	1937	1936
	Dec. 15	Sept. 15	Dec. 15	Dec. 15	Sept. 15	Dec. 15	Sept. 15	Dec 15
Bituminous coal (38 cities)	$8.72	$8.60	[1] $8.57	90.1	88.5	88.2	+1.8	+2.2
Pennsylvania anthracite (25 cities), new series:[2]								
Stove	11.13	10.80	11.80	79.1	76.8	83.9	+3.0	−5.6
Chestnut	11.28	10.98	[1] 11.83	80.3	78.2	84.2	+2.7	−4.7
Pea	9.28	9.08	9.86	-------	-------	-------	+2.1	−6.0
Buckwheat	7.77	7.66	([3])	-------	-------	-------	+1.4	-------

[1] Revised.
[2] Weighted on the basis of the distribution by rail or rail and tidewater to each city during the 12-month period from Aug. 1, 1935 to July 31, 1936.
[3] Insufficient data.

Prices, 1929 to December 1937

Retail coal prices were collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the 51 cities covered by the retail food price series on the 15th of each month from June 1920 to July 1935. Quarterly collection was initiated in July 1935 and January, April, July, and October were selected as the months for pricing. In September 1936 the representative month for each quarter was shifted to March, June, September, and December to conform with the change in the pricing cycle for the Bureau's cost-of-living series.

The average price of bituminous coal in 38 cities combined dropped 13.6 percent from 1929 to 1933. There was a sharp advance in 1934, followed by a gradual upward trend which raised this average to a level in 1937 only 3.2 percent below 1929.

Combined average prices and indexes for bituminous coal and stove and chestnut sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite are shown in table 9 for the cities combined by years from 1929 to 1937 and for the indicated months of the last 2 years of this period.

TABLE 9.—*Average Retail Coal Prices and Indexes for Large Cities Combined 1929 to December 1937, Inclusive*

Date	Average price per ton of 2,000 pounds			Index (October 1922–September 1925=100)		
	Bituminous (unweighted average, 38 cities)	Pennsylvania anthracite (weighted average, 25 cities)		Bituminous (unweighted average, 38 cities)	Pennsylvania anthracite (weighted average, 25 cities)	
		Stove	Chestnut		Stove	Chestnut
1929	$8.85	$14.14	$13.70	91.5	100.5	97.7
1930	8.83	14.03	13.66	91.3	99.7	97.3
1931	8.33	13.68	13.65	86.2	97.1	97.3
1932	7.71	12.55	12.45	79.7	89.2	88.7
1933	7.65	12.12	11.93	79.1	86.2	85.0
1934	8.26	12.18	11.92	85.4	86.6	85.0
1935	8.29	11.38	11.14	85.7	80.9	79.4
1936	8.42	11.74	11.60	87.1	83.5	82.7
1937	8.58	11.05	11.19	88.4	78.5	79.6
1936:						
January	8.58	12.07	11.76	88.7	85.8	83.8
April	8.57	11.80	11.61	88.6	83.9	82.8
July	8.13	11.36	11.20	84.1	80.7	79.8
September	8.35	11.68	11.63	86.0	83.0	82.8
December	[1] 8.57	11.80	[1] 11.83	88.2	83.9	84.2
1937:						
March	[1] 8.61	[1] 11.76	[1] 11.84	88.6	83.5	84.3
June	8.39	10.49	10.66	86.4	74.5	75.9
September	8.60	10.80	10.98	88.5	76.8	78.2
December	8.72	11.13	11.28	90.1	79.1	80.3

[1] Revised.

The trend of the weighted average prices of both stove- and chestnut-size Pennsylvania anthracite in 25 cities combined was downward from 1929 through 1935. After a slight advance in 1936, these prices fell in 1937 to their lowest level since 1920. The 1937 averages showed reductions below the average for 1929 of 21.9 percent for the stove size and 18.4 percent for chestnut.

Details by Cities

Details by cities are given in the Retail Price monthly report for January 1938, copies of which will be furnished upon request.

Wholesale Prices

WHOLESALE PRICES IN JANUARY 1938

THE downward movement in commodity prices continued through January marking a 6-month period of falling prices. From July 1937 to January 1938 commodity prices at wholesale declined 8.0 percent.

Largely as a result of pronounced decreases in prices of farm products and foods, the all-commodity index decreased 1.0 percent between December 1937 and January 1938. The decline placed the January index at 80.9 percent of the 1926 average, representing a decrease of 5.8 percent from January a year ago.

Seven of the 10 major commodity groups averaged lower in January 1938 than in December 1937. The decreases ranged from only 0.1 percent for fuel and lighting materials to 4.4 percent for foods. The metals and metal products, chemicals and drugs, and miscellaneous commodities groups advanced fractionally. Compared with January a year ago, wide price fluctuations have been recorded in all groups except building materials.

Raw material prices at wholesale dropped 0.7 percent to the lowest level reached in the past 3 years and are 15 percent below the January 1937 level. Average prices of semimanufactured commodities and finished products continued to decline. A decrease of 1.0 percent in the former group during the month interval brought the January index to a point 10.0 percent below a year ago. Although finished products prices dropped 1.2 percent during January, they are less than 1 percent below the January 1937 level.

Nonagricultural commodities, as measured by the index for "All commodities other than farm products", decreased 0.8 percent during January and are 2.1 percent below a year ago. Industrial commodity prices, according to the index for "All commodities other than farm products and foods", declined slightly but are above the corresponding month of last year.

A comparison of the January 1938 level of wholesale commodity prices with December and January 1937 is shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Comparison of Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices for January 1938 With December 1937 and January 1937*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	January 1938	December 1937	Change from a month ago	January 1937	Change from a year ago
All commodities	80.9	81.7	−1.0	85.9	−5.8
Farm products	71.6	72.8	−1.6	91.3	−21.6
Foods	76.3	79.8	−4.4	87.1	−12.4
Hides and leather products	96.7	97.7	−1.0	101.7	−4.9
Textile products	69.7	70.1	−.6	77.5	−10.1
Fuel and lighting materials	78.3	78.4	−.1	76.6	+2.2
Metals and metal products	96.6	96.3	+.3	90.9	+6.3
Building materials	91.8	92.5	−.8	91.3	+.5
Chemicals and drugs	79.6	79.5	+.1	87.7	−9.2
Housefurnishing goods	88.3	89.7	−1.6	86.5	+2.1
Miscellaneous	75.2	75.0	+.3	76.2	−1.3
Raw materials	74.9	75.4	−.7	88.1	−15.0
Semimanufactured articles	76.9	77.7	−1.0	85.4	−10.0
Finished products	84.3	85.3	−1.2	84.9	−.7
All commodities other than farm products	82.8	83.5	−.8	84.6	−2.1
All commodities other than farm products and foods	83.5	83.6	−.1	83.4	+.1

Wholesale Price Level in January

The January all-commodity index dropped 1.0 percent to 80.9 percent of the 1926 average. This is the lowest level reached since July 1936, and when compared with January 1937 represents a decrease of 5.8 percent.

During the month of January wholesale food prices dropped 4.4 percent. Farm products and housefurnishing goods declined 1.6 percent; hides and leather products, 1.0 percent; building materials, 0.8 percent; textile products, 0.6 percent; and fuel and lighting materials, 0.1 percent. The metals and metal products and miscellaneous commodities groups advanced 0.3 percent during the month interval and chemicals and drugs rose 0.1 percent.

The number of price changes within each of the 10 major commodity groups which influenced the movement of the all-commodity index during January is shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Number of Items Changing in Price From December 1937 to January 1938*

Commodity group	Increases	Decreases	No change
All commodities	124	237	452
Farm products	35	27	5
Foods	34	48	40
Hides and leather products	6	14	21
Textile products	9	41	64
Fuel and lighting materials	4	9	11
Metals and metal products	8	21	117
Building materials	9	22	55
Chemicals and drugs	5	12	72
Housefurnishing goods	7	18	36
Miscellaneous	7	25	31

Wholesale prices of raw materials declined 0.7 percent largely because of sharp reductions in prices of agricultural commodities, hides and skins, hemp and crude rubber. The group index—74.9—is 15.0 percent below the level of a year ago. Semimanufactured commodity prices as a group dropped 1.0 percent during the month and are 10.0 percent lower than they were a year ago. A pronounced decline—1.2 percent—was recorded by the finished products group. The current index—84.3—however, is less than 1 percent below that for January 1937.

Nonagricultural commodity prices in January, as measured by the index for "All commodities other than farm products"—82.8—decreased 0.8 percent and are 2.1 percent below the corresponding month of a year ago. Industrial commodity prices have shown little fluctuation over the month and year periods, according to the index for "All commodities other than farm products and foods"—83.5. They are 0.1 percent below a month ago and 0.1 percent above a year ago.

During January wholesale food prices fell 4.4 percent to the lowest point reached in the past 3 years. Decreases of 7.6 percent in dairy products, 7.0 percent in meats, and 1.9 percent in fruits and vegetables were largely responsible for the decline. Quotations were lower for butter, cheese, dried and fresh fruits, fresh beef, lamb, cured pork, oleo oil, and peanut butter. Cereal products advanced 1.2 percent. Higher prices were reported for rye flour, fresh pork, veal, cocoa beans, powdered cocoa, copra, smoked salmon, lard, pepper, edible tallow, and vegetable oils. Compared with a year ago, the January food index—76.3—shows a decrease of 12.4 percent.

The farm products group index declined 1.6 percent during the month because of lower prices for cows, steers, sheep, eggs, lemons, oranges, fresh milk at New York, tobacco, and sweet potatoes. Grains advanced 4.9 percent and livestock and poultry averaged 0.1 percent higher. Among the individual farm products items for which quotations were higher were barley, corn, oats, rye, wheat, hogs, poultry, cotton, peanuts, seeds, dried beans, and onions. The January farm products index—71.6—is the lowest since November 1934 and is 21.6 percent below that for January 1937.

The housefurnishing goods group index declined 1.6 percent because of weakening prices for furniture and furnishings such as blankets, mattresses, window shades, tubs, and pails.

Sharp declines in wholesale prices of hides and skins together with smaller decreases in average prices for leather, shoes, and luggage caused the hides and leather products group index to recede to 96.7 percent of the 1926 average.

Building material prices dropped 0.8 percent during January. Lower prices were registered for concrete blocks, Douglas fir and

Ponderosa pine lumber, red cedar shingles, doors, windows, and certain paint materials. Prices of naval stores, Chinawood oil, and whiting advanced sharply. Cement and structural steel remained unchanged at last month's level.

The textile products group index fell 0.6 percent to the lowest point reached since May 1935. Further reductions in prices of cotton goods, including denims, duck, and sateen, together with weakening prices for men's shirts, hosiery, underwear, rayon yarns, hemp, rope, and twine, were responsible for the decrease. Print cloth prices averaged higher.

A minor decline—0.1 percent—was shown in the fuel and lighting materials group index between December and January. A pronounced decrease in prices of natural gasoline and Pennsylvania crude petroleum caused the recession. Average prices of anthracite and bituminous coal were higher and coke remained firm.

In the metals and metal products group, rising prices for certain agricultural implements, scrap steel, and tin cans more than offset declining prices for knobs, locks, wood screws, babbitt metal, and zinc sheets, with the result that the group index advanced 0.3 percent. Average wholesale prices of motor vehicles and plumbing and heating fixtures were stationary.

During January, wholesale prices of cattle feed advanced 12.1 percent. Paper and pulp rose 0.2 percent largely because of a sharp advance in prices of newsprint paper. Crude rubber declined 2.2 percent and prices of neutral oil and paraffin wax also averaged lower.

The chemicals and drugs group index advanced fractionally to 79.6 percent of the 1926 average. Chemicals, principally fats and oils, and fertilizer material prices were higher. Wholesale prices of drugs and pharmaceuticals including acetic acid, pine oil, and mixed fertilizers were lower.

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for January 1938, December 1937, and for January for each of the past 7 years are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Groups and subgroups	January 1938	December 1937	January 1937	January 1936	January 1935	January 1934	January 1933	January 1932	January 1931
All commodities	80.9	81.7	85.9	80.6	78.8	72.2	61.0	67.3	78.2
Farm products	71.6	72.8	91.3	78.2	77.6	58.7	42.6	52.8	73.1
Grains	75.0	71.5	113.0	78.9	88.8	63.7	32.9	46.7	62.4
Livestock and poultry	78.5	78.4	91.4	89.1	73.3	41.1	37.8	53.4	75.2
Other farm products	66.1	69.3	84.8	70.8	76.6	67.4	48.7	54.8	75.3

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities*—Continued

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	January 1938	December 1937	January 1937	January 1936	January 1935	January 1934	January 1933	January 1932	January 1931
Foods	76.3	79.8	87.1	83.5	79.9	64.3	55.8	64.7	80.7
Dairy products	83.3	90.2	88.9	84.2	83.5	65.0	55.2	67.8	83.7
Cereal products	83.0	82.0	88.1	92.1	91.6	85.8	60.9	71.0	75.7
Fruits and vegetables	56.7	57.8	82.4	62.2	62.8	68.0	53.0	62.2	76.9
Meats	82.6	88.8	90.6	94.9	81.6	48.9	49.5	61.9	88.4
Other foods	69.5	71.5	82.1	75.5	76.2	64.0	60.1	61.9	74.5
Hides and leather products	96.7	97.7	101.7	97.1	86.2	89.5	68.9	79.3	88.7
Shoes	104.7	105.6	99.7	100.5	97.1	98.5	83.3	88.8	95.1
Hides and skins	82.3	85.5	116.0	100.5	71.1	77.2	43.0	49.0	64.4
Leather	86.6	86.9	94.3	87.3	74.3	79.9	57.1	77.5	90.8
Other leather products	102.4	102.7	101.1	95.3	85.0	87.0	78.2	98.9	102.3
Textile products	69.7	70.1	77.5	71.7	70.3	76.5	51.9	59.6	71.3
Clothing	86.3	86.7	83.9	80.8	78.4	87.5	61.9	69.6	79.1
Cotton goods	68.2	68.7	91.9	80.4	84.1	86.5	50.1	55.8	73.5
Hosiery and underwear	63.0	63.4	64.4	61.8	63.5	70.6	48.4	55.8	64.8
Silk and rayon	28.9	29.4	34.5	33.5	28.6	29.7	27.0	37.7	49.0
Woolen and worsted goods	83.8	83.5	91.9	81.4	73.8	84.3	53.4	63.3	73.7
Other textile products	67.7	68.5	66.2	67.8	68.8	76.9	66.3	70.7	77.2
Fuel and lighting materials	78.3	78.4	76.6	75.1	72.9	73.1	66.0	67.9	73.3
Anthracite	80.1	80.0	81.6	82.3	82.3	81.5	88.7	94.8	88.9
Bituminous coal	103.2	101.1	96.8	98.7	96.3	90.8	79.8	84.4	88.1
Coke	105.5	105.5	97.6	92.7	86.4	83.5	75.3	80.5	83.8
Electricity	(1)	83.1	81.0	83.1	89.9	92.3	103.2	107.5	99.9
Gas	(1)	81.3	82.2	83.2	87.6	90.8	96.7	98.6	95.8
Petroleum products	58.8	59.5	58.3	54.4	48.8	51.1	38.7	38.8	50.4
Metals and metal products	96.6	96.3	90.9	86.7	85.8	85.5	78.2	81.8	86.9
Agricultural implements	96.2	96.1	93.0	94.6	92.7	85.2	84.5	85.5	94.4
Farm machinery	97.7	97.6	92.5	92.2	90.3	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Iron and steel	99.6	99.0	91.7	87.1	85.7	83.6	78.5	79.9	85.5
Motor vehicles [2]	95.6	95.6	86.3	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Nonferrous metals	75.0	75.1	84.8	69.7	67.6	66.1	46.4	55.4	69.5
Plumbing and heating	79.6	79.6	77.1	71.7	68.0	72.5	62.8	74.1	87.4
Building materials	91.8	92.5	91.3	85.7	84.9	86.3	70.1	74.8	83.8
Brick and tile	91.8	92.0	89.7	88.4	91.1	86.6	74.9	79.3	87.0
Cement	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.5	93.9	93.9	81.2	75.2	90.3
Lumber	92.6	93.8	93.0	82.2	79.9	87.4	55.9	65.6	76.4
Paint and paint materials	80.1	80.2	83.7	79.6	79.0	78.4	68.1	75.4	83.2
Plumbing and heating	79.6	79.6	77.1	71.7	68.0	72.5	62.8	74.1	87.4
Structural steel	114.9	114.9	104.7	92.0	92.0	86.8	81.7	77.3	83.0
Other building materials	95.8	96.9	93.9	90.2	90.3	89.8	79.4	81.0	87.8
Chemicals and drugs	79.6	79.5	87.7	80.5	79.3	74.4	71.6	75.7	84.5
Chemicals	84.1	83.5	96.4	87.6	84.5	78.8	79.3	80.6	88.3
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	74.0	75.1	79.0	74.0	73.1	65.2	54.9	60.6	65.3
Fertilizer materials	72.1	72.0	70.6	64.4	66.5	68.4	62.3	69.9	81.4
Mixed fertilizers	73.4	74.4	71.4	68.8	73.3	71.2	62.7	75.5	90.4
Housefurnishing goods	88.3	89.7	86.5	81.4	81.2	80.8	72.9	77.7	88.3
Furnishings	92.8	93.5	89.0	84.8	84.3	82.9	73.5	76.1	84.9
Furniture	83.7	85.9	84.0	77.9	78.2	78.8	72.3	79.5	92.1
Miscellaneous	75.2	75.0	76.2	67.8	70.7	67.5	61.2	65.6	72.2
Automobile tires and tubes	57.4	57.4	51.8	45.0	47.5	43.2	44.6	39.7	47.2
Cattle feed	91.6	81.7	135.4	68.6	116.2	68.5	38.2	53.0	75.0
Paper and pulp	90.0	89.8	84.8	79.8	81.5	83.0	72.0	78.0	83.6
Rubber, crude	30.5	31.2	44.3	29.8	26.5	18.9	6.5	9.3	17.1
Other miscellaneous	82.4	82.7	83.1	80.4	80.4	81.8	76.8	85.2	89.9
Raw materials	74.9	75.4	88.1	78.1	76.6	64.1	50.2	58.3	72.7
Semimanufactured articles	76.9	77.7	85.4	74.8	71.2	71.9	56.9	63.1	73.7
Finished products	84.3	85.3	84.9	82.4	80.8	76.0	66.7	72.1	81.5
All commodities other than farm products	82.8	83.5	84.6	80.9	78.9	75.0	64.9	70.3	79.3
All commodities other than farm products and foods	83.5	83.6	83.4	78.8	77.7	78.3	67.3	71.7	79.0

[1] Data not available.

[2] Preliminary revision.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to January 1938

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups, by years from 1926 to 1937, inclusive, and by months from January 1937 to January 1938, inclusive, are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and drugs	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
By years:											
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1927	99.4	96.7	107.7	95.6	88.3	96.3	94.7	96.8	97.5	91.0	95.4
1928	105.9	101.0	121.4	95.5	84.3	97.0	94.1	95.6	95.1	85.4	96.7
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.2	94.3	82.6	95.3
1930	88.3	90.5	100.0	80.3	78.5	92.1	89.9	89.1	92.7	77.7	86.4
1931	64.8	74.6	86.1	66.3	67.5	84.5	79.2	79.3	84.9	69.8	73.0
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.5	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.6	75.8	62.5	65.9
1934	65.3	70.5	86.6	72.9	73.3	86.9	86.2	75.9	81.5	69.7	74.9
1935	78.8	83.7	89.6	70.9	73.5	86.4	85.3	80.5	80.6	68.3	80.0
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	80.4	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	83.9	89.7	77.8	86.3
By months:											
1937:											
January	91.3	87.1	101.7	77.5	76.6	90.9	91.3	87.7	86.5	76.2	85.9
February	91.4	87.0	102.7	77.5	76.8	91.7	93.3	87.8	87.9	77.3	86.3
March	94.1	87.5	104.2	78.3	76.2	96.0	95.9	87.5	88.4	79.5	87.8
April	92.2	85.5	106.3	79.5	76.8	96.5	96.7	86.9	89.0	81.1	88.0
May	89.8	84.2	106.7	78.7	77.2	95.8	97.2	84.5	89.3	80.5	87.4
June	88.5	84.7	106.4	78.2	77.5	95.9	96.9	83.6	89.5	79.4	87.2
July	89.3	86.2	106.7	78.3	78.1	96.1	96.7	83.9	89.7	79.0	87.9
August	86.4	86.7	108.1	77.1	78.4	97.0	96.3	82.2	91.1	77.3	87.5
September	85.9	88.0	107.6	75.3	78.7	97.1	96.2	81.4	91.1	77.0	87.4
October	80.4	85.5	106.7	73.5	78.5	96.4	95.4	81.2	91.0	76.2	85.4
November	75.7	83.1	101.4	71.2	78.2	96.8	93.7	80.2	90.4	75.4	83.3
December	72.8	79.8	97.7	70.1	78.4	96.3	92.5	79.5	89.7	75.0	81.7
1938:											
January	71.6	76.3	96.7	69.7	78.3	96.6	91.8	79.6	88.3	75.2	80.9

The price trend since 1926 is shown in table 5 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, finished products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Finished products" was given in the December 1937 issue of the Wholesale Price pamphlet.

TABLE 5.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Finished products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1927	96.5	94.3	95.0	94.6	94.0
1928	99.1	94.5	95.9	94.8	92.9
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6
1930	84.3	81.8	88.0	85.9	85.2
1931	65.6	69.0	77.0	74.6	75.0
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2
1934	68.6	72.8	78.2	76.9	78.4
1935	77.1	73.6	82.2	80.2	77.9
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3
1937:					
January	88.1	85.4	84.9	84.6	83.4
February	88.3	85.5	85.4	85.0	84.1
March	90.1	89.6	86.4	86.3	85.5
April	88.7	89.5	87.4	86.9	86.5
May	87.1	87.5	87.5	86.7	86.3
June	86.1	86.8	87.7	86.8	86.1
July	86.5	87.0	88.8	87.5	86.3
August	84.8	86.6	89.0	87.6	86.1
September	84.4	85.3	89.1	87.6	85.9
October	80.7	82.5	88.1	86.4	85.1
November	77.2	79.8	86.7	84.8	84.3
December	75.4	77.7	85.3	83.5	82.6
1938:					
January	74.9	76.9	84.3	82.8	83.5

Weekly Fluctuations

Except for a slight upward tendency toward midmonth, wholesale commodity prices fell steadily throughout January. The cumulative decrease in the all-commodity index during the 5-week period, December 25 to January 29, was 1.1 percent. The negligible upward movement in the general index during the week ended January 15 was occasioned by a sharp increase in prices of agricultural commodities.

TABLE 6.—*Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Commodity Groups, December 1937 and January 1938*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Jan. 29, 1938	Jan. 22, 1938	Jan. 15, 1938	Jan. 8, 1938	Jan. 1, 1938	Dec. 25, 1937	Dec. 18, 1937	Dec. 11, 1937	Dec. 4, 1937
All commodities	80.3	80.8	81.0	80.8	81.0	81.2	81.5	81.9	82.0
Farm products	70.8	71.8	73.4	72.7	73.0	72.9	73.2	73.4	73.9
Foods	74.6	76.1	76.8	76.8	77.8	78.9	79.7	80.7	80.7
Hides and leather products	96.3	97.1	97.4	97.9	98.3	98.4	98.2	98.3	99.8
Textile products	68.9	69.0	69.3	69.2	69.4	69.4	69.5	69.9	69.8
Fuel and lighting materials	79.0	79.1	78.8	78.8	78.7	78.6	78.6	78.6	78.6
Metals and metal products	96.3	96.5	96.5	96.1	96.1	96.2	96.4	96.2	96.3
Building materials	91.8	92.0	92.1	92.3	92.4	92.5	92.8	93.0	93.0
Chemicals and drugs	79.2	79.5	79.5	79.2	79.2	79.2	79.1	78.9	79.4
Housefurnishing goods	90.7	90.7	90.8	90.8	91.2	91.4	92.1	92.1	92.1
Miscellaneous	75.2	75.1	75.0	74.5	74.6	74.9	74.8	74.8	75.1
Raw materials	74.1	74.7	75.9	75.3	75.5	75.3	75.2	75.3	75.7
Semimanufactured articles	77.0	77.5	77.6	77.0	77.2	77.4	77.6	78.1	78.4
Finished products	84.1	84.5	84.4	84.3	84.6	85.0	85.5	85.9	85.9
All commodities other than farm products	82.4	82.8	82.8	82.6	82.8	83.1	83.4	83.8	83.8
All commodities other than farm products and foods	83.5	83.7	83.6	83.5	83.6	83.6	83.7	83.7	83.9

Wholesale food prices fell sharply during January registering a decrease of 5.4 percent between December 25 and January 29. Farm product prices declined 2.9 percent during this period; hides and leather products, 2.1 percent; building materials and housefurnishing goods, 0.8 percent; and textile products, 0.7 percent. Three groups registered small increases. Fuel and lighting materials advanced 0.5 percent; miscellaneous commodities, 0.4 percent; and metals and metal products, 0.1 percent.

Weekly price variations in the 10 major commodity groups during January are shown by the index numbers in table 6. The percentage changes from week to week are given in table 7.

TABLE 7.—*Weekly Changes (Percent) During January 1938, by Groups of Commodities*

Commodity group	Percentage change from—					
	Dec. 25 to Jan. 29	Jan. 22 to Jan. 29	Jan. 15 to Jan. 22	Jan. 8 to Jan. 15	Jan. 1 to Jan. 8	Dec. 25 to Jan. 1
All commodities	−1.1	−0.6	−0.2	+0.2	−0.2	−0.2
Farm products	−2.9	−1.4	−2.2	+1.0	−.4	+.1
Foods	−5.4	−2.0	−.9	0	−1.3	−1.4
Hides and leather products	−2.1	−.8	−.3	−.5	−.4	−.1
Textile products	−.7	−.1	−.4	+.1	−.3	0
Fuel and lighting materials	+.5	−.1	+.4	0	+.1	+.1
Metals and metal products	+.1	−.2	0	+.4	0	−.1
Building materials	−.8	−.2	−.1	−.2	−.1	−.1
Chemicals and drugs	0	−.4	0	+.4	0	0
Housefurnishing goods	−.8	0	−.1	0	−.4	−.2
Miscellaneous	+.4	+.1	+.1	+.7	−.1	−.4
Raw materials	−1.6	−.8	−1.6	+.8	−.3	+.3
Semimanufactured articles	−.5	−.6	−.1	+.8	−.3	−.3
Finished products	−1.1	−.5	+.1	+.1	−.4	−.5
All commodities other than farm products	−.8	−.5	0	+.2	−.2	−.4
All commodities other than farm products and foods	−.1	−.2	+.1	+.1	−.1	0

Monthly Average Wholesale Prices and Index Numbers of Individual Commodities

The table showing average wholesale prices and index numbers of individual commodities formerly appearing in the Wholesale Price pamphlet is now published semiannually in the June and December issues. The December 1937 issue showed the data for the year 1937 and for the last 6 months of 1937. The monthly figures will be furnished currently upon request.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

FEBRUARY 1938

Agriculture

Part-time farming in the Southeast. By R. H. Allen and others. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, Division of Social Research, 1937. xxxviii, 317 pp., maps, charts. (Research Monograph IX.)

In addition to data on labor, living, and social conditions of part-time farmers on the farms, information is given on their employment and earnings off the farms. Data from the report are given in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

The response of Government to agriculture. By Arthur P. Chew. Washington, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1937. 107 pp.

Brief history of U. S. Department of Agriculture and a description of the various forms of governmental activity which are carried on in the interest of farmers.

Labor conditions in Japanese agriculture: A study of the problem of agricultural population. By H. Isobé. Utsunomiya, 1937. 88 pp., charts. (Bulletin of Utsunomiya Agricultural College, Section B, Agricultural and forest economics, Vol. 2, No. 1.)

Child Labor

Trend of child labor, 1927 to 1936. By Ella Arvilla Merritt. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 20 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 677, reprint from December 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Child labor as a relic of the Dark Ages. By Tom Ireland. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1937. 336 pp., illus.

Child labor facts, 1938. New York, National Child Labor Committee, 1938. 34 pp., chart, illus. (Publication No. 372.)

Digest of current data on extent and distribution of child labor, conditions in selected occupations, industrial accidents to minors, and State laws dealing with child labor, with a report on the status of the child labor amendment to the Constitution. Sources are listed by subject.

Child labor in the tiff mines. By Charles E. Gibbons. New York, National Child Labor Committee, 1938. 31 pp., illus. (Publication No. 373.)

Report of a field survey in the tiff (barite) mining section of Missouri, dealing particularly with school attendance and extent of illiteracy among children working in the mines. The study covers ages, working hours, and earnings of a group of 86 children under 16 years of age regularly employed in tiff mining. Case studies show living and social conditions in the area.

Cooperative Movement

Consumers' cooperatives in northern Wisconsin. By Samuel Mermin. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 18 pp. (Serial No. R. 675, reprint from December 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Estonia—population, cultural and economic life. Tallinn, State Central Bureau of Statistics, 1937. 279 pp., map, illus. (In English.)

A section of the volume is devoted to the cooperative movement.

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Cost and Standards of Living

Family living in Knott County, Ky. By Faith M. Williams and others. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1937. 68 pp., illus. (Technical Bulletin No. 576.)

Heat and light: A comparative study of fuel consumption and cost in self-supporting and in dependent families, Buffalo, N. Y. Buffalo, Buffalo Foundation, 1937. 57 pp.; mimeographed.

Economic and Social Problems

A problem approach to economics. By Willard E. Atkins and James D. Magee. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1937. 572 pp.

Textbook in economics consisting of a discussion of economic organizations, relations, practices, and problems, rather than an abstract analysis of economic doctrines. Three of the twenty-six chapters deal specifically with labor.

The problem of economic order. By C. E. Ayres. New York, Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1938. 92 pp.

The author's purpose is to make a contribution to the revision of economic thought and social theory. His viewpoint is indicated by his statement that the break-down of modern industrial economy is the result of a deficiency of mass purchasing power. He would shift the objective of the social order and the emphasis of social theory from the accumulation of capital funds to the correction of the present extreme discrepancy in the distribution of income.

Democracy versus dictatorship. By Norman Thomas. New York, League for Industrial Democracy, 1937. 33 pp., bibliography.

The writer's point of view is summarized in the statement that in order for democracy to win in a defensive struggle it must be extended on the economic as well as on the political front.

Socialism versus capitalism. By A. C. Pigou. London, Macmillan & Co., Ltd., 1937. 139 pp.

Favors a gradual advance toward nationalized industry and public investment, with emphasis on the idea, however, that "gradualness implies action, and is not a polite name for standing still."

The socialist case. By Douglas Jay. London, Faber & Faber, Ltd., 1937. 362 pp.

Attempts to reinterpret the case for socialized investment in the light of British and world experience and of the trend of economic thought during and since the great depression. An experimental approach in dealing with the problems of transition is advocated, and the nature and limits of possible methods are outlined.

The spirit and structure of German fascism. By Robert A. Brady. London, Victor Gollancz, Ltd., 1937. 383 pp.

A social study of Pittsburgh: Community problems and social services of Allegheny County. By Philip Klein and collaborators. New York, Columbia University Press (for Social Study of Pittsburgh and Allegheny County), 1938. 958 pp., maps, charts, illus.

Part 1, which considers the social and economic background of the community covered, discusses Allegheny County as a place in which to live, the chances for making a living there, social legislation, labor organization, housing and sanitation, racial and ethnic stratification, social attitudes, public opinion, and pressure groups. Part 2 takes up specific problems in connection with the organization of social and health work in the great industrial center surveyed. A summary of the major recommendations presented to the committee sponsoring the study is included in an appendix.

L'activité économique en France de la fin du XVIII[e] siècle à nos jours. By Achille Viallate. Paris, Librairie des Sciences politiques et sociales, 1937. 489 pp.

A study of the economic development of France from the end of the 18th century to the present time.

Grey children: A study in humbug and misery in South Wales. By James Hanley. London, Methuen Publishers, 1937. 230 pp.

Describes conditions confronting idle men and their families in distressed mining villages.

Education and Guidance

Education of negroes—a 5-year bibliography, 1931–1935. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1937. 63 pp. (Bulletin, 1937, No. 8.)

The several heads under which the references are grouped include vocational education and guidance, educational achievement and measurement, social and economic aspects, and adult education.

Guidance bibliography, 1935: An annotated list of books, pamphlets, and periodical references on guidance appearing during the calendar year 1935. Compiled by Marion H. Witmer and Maris M. Proffitt. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1937. 65 pp. (Bulletin, 1937, No. 36.)

Training and educational work of the CCC. By Robert Fechner. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, December 1937, pp. 5–7, illus.)

Employment and Unemployment

Preliminary report on total and partial unemployment—summary by States, counties, and cities, as of November 16–20, 1937. Washington, U. S. Census of Partial Employment, Unemployment, and Occupations, 1938. 99 pp.

Certain statistics from the census were published in the February 1938 Monthly Labor Review.

Recent trends in unemployment. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 17 pp. (Serial No. R. 653, reprint from November 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Analysis of the registration records of the U. S. Employment Service, designed to show how current registration of the unemployed may be used to indicate the general trend of unemployment.

Report on juvenile employment [Great Britain] during 1936. London, Ministry of Labor, 1937. 16 pp.

Reprint from Ministry of Labor report for 1936, giving details of employment and unemployment, transference schemes, and courses of instruction for unemployed juveniles.

Employment Service

First annual report of Louisville's junior placement and counseling division of Kentucky State Employment Service. Louisville, 1937. 40 pp.

Handbook for farm placement supervisors. Washington, U. S. Employment Service, 1937. 97 pp.; mimeographed. (Employment Office Manual Series, Section J. T.–1.)

Health and Industrial Hygiene

The national health survey, 1935–1936. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, National Institute of Health, 1938. Preliminary reports, various paging; mimeographed.

Reviewed in this issue.

Annual report of Surgeon General of U. S. Public Health Service, for fiscal year 1937. Washington, 1937. 164 pp.

A section of the report describes the studies carried out during the year by the Division of Industrial Hygiene.

Rapport annuel du service médical du travail [Belgium], 1936. (In Revue du Travail, Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale, Bruxelles, January 1938, pp. 1–49.)

This report for 1936 of the Belgian factory medical service contains a brief discussion of working and health conditions in establishments visited by inspectors, and presents findings of special studies of occupational diseases.

Report on the British health services: A survey of existing health services in Great Britain with proposals for future development. London, Political and Economic Planning (PEP), 1937. 430 pp., maps, charts.

A general summary of, and conclusions concerning, public-health services in Great Britain, including information on industrial health, national health insurance, nutrition, and the extent and cost of ill health.

The effects of conditions of artificial lighting on performace of worsted weavers. By H. C. Weston. London, Industrial Health Research Board, 1938. 29 pp., diagrams. (Report No. 81.)

Student interests and needs in hygiene. By James F. Rogers, M. D. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1937. 21 pp. (Bulletin, 1937, No. 16.)

Results of a questionnaire study among high-school and college students regarding the adequacy of courses in hygiene. Much dissatisfaction was expressed as to the length and content of the courses and methods of instruction.

Health Insurance

Health insurance—the next step in social security. By Louis S. Reed. New York, Harper & Bros., 1937. 281 pp.

The author discusses present conditions governing the provision of medical care, from the standpoint of the physician and that of the public, and presents the case for adoption in this country of a system of compulsory health insurance.

Die krankenversicherung 1935 mit vorläufigen ergebnissen für das jahr 1936. Berlin, Statistiches Reichsamt, 1937. 129 pp., maps, charts. (Statistik des deutschen Reich, Band 501.)

Report on operation of the sickness-insurance system in Germany during 1935, with preliminary data for 1936. Statistics of funds, contributions, costs, benefits, income and expenses, hospitalization, institutional care, and death benefits are presented.

Sickness insurance in the Netherlands. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 10 pp. (Serial No. R. 676, reprint from December 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Home Work

El trabajo a domicilio. By P. Maymí Martínez. San Juan, Puerto Rico, Departamento del Trabajo, 1937. 24 pp.; mimeographed. (Publicaciones de Ilustración Popular, Vol. II, No. 8.)

The status of industrial home work and its legal regulation in various countries are considered in connection with the present home-work situation in Puerto Rico and recommendations for its regulation there.

Housing

Report of Alley Dwelling Authority for District of Columbia, fiscal year July 1, 1936–June 30, 1937. Washington, 1937. 20 pp., illus.

Reviewed in this issue.

Local residential construction: Summary of national conference [Washington, November 17, 18, 1937] and suggestions for local conferences. Washington, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, [1938?]. 51 pp.

Volume of residential construction, 1920–37, and number of dwelling units built in urban and nonfarm areas, 1920–36. By Herman B. Byer. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 9 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 694, reprint from January 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

The present status of municipal housing and slum clearance in the United States. By Elizabeth Longan. (In American Political Science Review, Menasha, Wis., December 1937, pp. 1124–1132.)

A review of housing legislation and the extent of municipal machinery to provide low-rent housing, with citations of court cases determining the powers of local housing authorities.

Facts and figures regarding present housing situation in England and Wales (revised, November 1937). London, National Housing and Town Planning Council, 1937. 16 pp.

Brings the various official statistics on number of low-cost houses provided and the financing of housing projects up to 1937, and shows the major provisions of the laws now operative governing subsidy and slum clearance. The results of the recent overcrowding survey and other pertinent information are also included.

Final report of departmental [Ministry of Health, Great Britain] committee on construction of flats for the working classes. London, 1937. 55 pp., diagrams.

The results of an inquiry into materials and methods of construction suitable for flats for those with low incomes, taking into account both efficiency and cost.

Report of interdepartmental committee on the Rent Restrictions Acts [Great Britain], 1937. London, Ministry of Health, 1937. 58 pp. (Cmd. 5621.)

An account of the present situation under the rent-restriction laws, with recommendations for changes in the laws, and information on housing and housing shortage.

A few facts about the housing problem. By Catherine Bauer. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, January 1938, pp. 3–7; charts, illus.)

Negro housing in towns and cities, 1927–1937. A selected list of references, compiled by Agnes H. Campbell. New York, Russell Sage Foundation Library, December 1937. 5 pp. (Bulletin No. 146.)

Williamsburg houses—a case history of housing. Washington, Federal Administration of Public Works, 1937. 31 pp., illus.

Describes the origin and development of the Williamsburg low-cost housing project.

The diary of a housing manager. By Abraham Goldfeld. Chicago, National Association of Housing Officials, 1938. 115 pp.

Income

Life earnings in selected occupations in the United States. By Harold F. Clark. New York, Harper & Bros., 1937. 408 pp.

The occupations for which estimated life earnings are given in this volume are architecture, dentistry, professional engineering, journalism, law, library work, medicine, the ministry, nursing, school teaching, clerical work, skilled labor, farming, and unskilled labor. Figures on length of life in the general occupational groups are also included.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

Accidentes del trabajo, 1936. Habana, Secretaría de Hacienda, Dirección General de Estadística, 1937. 4 pp.; mimeographed.

Data on accidents to workers in Cuba during 1936, classified by provinces, months, kind of work, and degree of severity.

Olycksfall i arbete år 1934. Stockholm, Riksförsäkringsanstalten, 1937. 51 pp.

Analysis of industrial accidents in Sweden, with tabulations showing, by industry, the number and cost of injuries, by sex and age; severity and duration, by age and cause; location of injury; and time loss, by cause. The total number of industrial injuries in 1934, as reported to the Royal Insurance Institution, was 138,486.

Printed in Swedish, with table of contents, résumé, list of industries, and list of accident causes in French.

Riksförsäkringsanstalten, år 1936. Stockholm, Riksförsäkringsanstalten, 1937. 32 pp.

Report on state insurance, including accident insurance, in Sweden in 1936. Printed in Swedish with table of contents and résumé in French.

Twenty-first annual report of [Queensland] State Government Insurance Office, for year ended June 30, 1937. Brisbane, 1937. 41 pp.

Covers operations under the workmen's compensation laws as well as general forms of insurance.

Workmen's compensation for silicosis in Union of South Africa, Great Britain, and Germany. Geneva, International Labor Office (American branch, 734 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.), 1937. 147 pp. (Studies and Reports, Series F, No. 16.)

Industrial Relations

Labor in Canadian-American relations. Toronto, Ryerson Press (for Carnegie Endowment for International Peace), 1937. xxxviii, 212 pp.

The first part of the book, by Norman J. Ware, is devoted to the history of labor interaction, and the second part, by H. A. Logan, to labor costs and labor standards.

Third annual report of National Mediation Board, including report of National Railroad Adjustment Board, for fiscal year ended June 30, 1937. Washington, 1937. 34 pp., paster.

Reviewed in this issue.

First annual report of Pennsylvania Labor Relations Board, for calendar year 1937. Harrisburg, 1938. 33 pp.

The job of conciliation in labor disputes. By J. R. Steelman. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, January 1938, pp. 1, 2.)

The contents of collective agreements—the wisdom of hindsight. By Sumner H. Slichter. (In Society for Advancement of Management Journal, New York, January 1938, pp. 13–21.)

How to operate under a collective agreement. By Morris Greenberg. (In Society for Advancement of Management Journal, New York, January 1938, pp. 7–12.)

Iron and Steel Industry

Steel—problems of a great industry. By Maxwell S. Stewart. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1937. 32 pp., charts. (Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 15.)

A pamphlet prepared on the basis of the two-volume study by Carroll R. Daugherty, Melvin G. de Chazeau, and Samuel S. Stratton, entitled "The Economics of the Iron and Steel Industry."

Labor Legislation

Laws relating to employment agencies in United States, as of July 1, 1937. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 239 pp. (Bulletin No. 630.)

Arbeitsvermittlung und arbeitseinsatz. By Kurt Göttel. München and Berlin, C. H. Beck'sche Verlagsbuchhandlung, 1937. 179 pp.

Collection of laws and regulations pertaining to conditions of employment and employment service in Germany through 1936, including prescribed forms of registration cards.

Gesetz zur ordnung der nationalen arbeit. With comments by Alfred Hueck and others. München and Berlin, C. H. Beck'sche Verlagsbuchhandlung, 1937. 730 pp.

This volume contains the national labor law of Germany with regulations issued for its enforcement, and interpretative comments by various German authors.

The legal protection of the worker's job. By James P. Rowland. Philadelphia, 1937. 168 pp. (Privately published.)

Discusses policies and practices operating to interfere with job tenure and measures for their regulation and control. These measures include collective agreements and Federal and State laws designed to protect the worker's right to his job. The author reviews two types of relevant court decisions—in cases in which expulsion from labor unions jeopardized the right to work, and in those involving the constitutionality of Federal and State legislation. A summary of foreign legislation on the subject of job tenure is given in an appendix, and a comprehensive bibliography is included.

Labor Organization

The Brotherhood of Railway Clerks. By Harry Henig. New York, Columbia University Press, 1937. 300 pp., charts.

Discusses the historical development, collective-bargaining machinery and methods, wage movements, jurisdiction, government, membership, and social and industrial program of the largest union of "white-collar" workers in the United States. Descriptions of the jobs included in the jurisdiction of the brotherhood are given in an appendix. A selected bibliography is included.

Employer interference with lawful union activity. (In Columbia Law Review, New York, May 1937, pp. 816–841.)

The forms of employer interference discussed are discrimination against employees for union activity, individual contracts, company unions, strikebreaking, and espionage. The degree of effectiveness of legislative attempts to regulate these activities is analyzed, with particular reference to relevant judicial decisions and interpretations.

Regulation of labor unions. By Walter Gordon Merritt. New York, League for Industrial Rights, [1937]. 49 pp.

Argument in support of a bill introduced into the New York Legislature in March 1937 to place strikes and lockouts, and labor unions and their finances and contributions, under State regulation and supervision as outlined in the bill. The text of the bill is given in an appendix.

Organizaciones patronales y obreras [Cuba], 1937. Habana, Secretaría de Hacienda, Dirección General de Estadística, 1937. 5 pp.; mimeographed.

The number of legally registered employer organizations and the number and membership of workers' organizations in Cuba, in the spring of 1937, are shown for the various Provinces. The workers' organizations are also classified by occupation and by industry group.

Union membership in Great Britain and the United States. By Leo Wolman. New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc., 1937. 16 pp., charts. (Bulletin 68.)

A comparative study showing actual union membership and rate of growth in the two countries from 1897 to 1935; relative strength of organized labor on the basis of numbers gainfully occupied, as shown in the last two censuses, by totals and by selected industries; and comparative strength of organization in the five largest industrial groups in 1935.

Land Utilization

Land utilization—a bibliography (supplement, 1937). Compiled by Dorothy Campbell Culver. Berkeley, University of California, Bureau of Public Administration, November 13, 1937. 139 pp.

Supplement to a bibliography of the same title issued in 1935 by the Bureau of Public Administration.

Men's Clothing Industry

The economic aspects of production of men's clothing (with particular reference to the industry in Chicago). By Robert James Myers. Chicago, University of Chicago Libraries, 1937. 89 pp., charts; bibliography.

Migration

Drought and depression migration into Oregon, 1930 to 1936. By Charles S. Hoffman. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 9 pp. (Serial No. R. 688, reprint from January 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

Migration problems. (In International Labor Review, Geneva, December 1937, pp. 721–741.)

Minimum Wage

Setting minimum wages for retail employees in District of Columbia. By Louise Stitt. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, December 1937, pp. 8, 9.)

Mining Industry

Bootleg mining of anthracite. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 4 pp. (Serial No. R. 674, reprint from December 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Annual report of Chief Inspector of Mines in India, for 1936. Delhi, 1937. 272 pp., charts.

Gives data on number of persons employed in and about the mines, earnings, hours of labor, production, accidents, safety regulations, health, and sanitation.

Older Worker in Industry

Young and old at the employment office. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 13 pp. (Serial No. R. 687, reprint from January 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

Personnel Management

Curtailment, layoff policy, and seniority. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1938. 11 pp. (Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 5.)

Personnel policies affecting salesmen. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1938. 19 pp. (Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 4.)

Planning

Problems of town and country planning. By Sir Ivan Gwilym Gibbon. London, Geo. Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1937. 200 pp. (Town and County Hall Series of Books on Local Government, No. 2.)

Stresses the importance of systematic planning for national, regional, and local development.

Statistical aids for community planning. New York, Community Chests and Councils, Inc., 1937. 29 pp., charts. (Bulletin No. 90.)

One of a series of special bulletins on community planning. The four sections of this bulletin deal respectively with health and care of the sick; recreation and group work; child care; and family case work and relief.

Population

The population of Hamilton County, Ohio, in 1935: Part I, A summary and interpretation of the regional census of Hamilton County, Ohio. By Warren S. Thompson and P. K. Whelpton. *Part II, Selected tables of the regional census of Hamilton County, Ohio.* Cincinnati, Cincinnati Employment Center, 1937. Various paging, maps, charts. (Studies in Economic Security, I and II.)

The statistics presented include figures on growth of Cincinnati's population; racial composition and percent of foreign born; sex, age, marital condition, industrial distribution, and employment status of the residents; and assimilation of migrants into the community's life.

The material obtained in this survey furnished in large part the fundamental data from which plans have developed for the promotion of economic security in the locality covered.

Prison Labor

State laws regulating sale of prison-made goods. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 3 pp. (Serial No. R. 679, reprint from December 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Recreation

The Chicago recreation survey, 1937: Volume I, Public recreation. Chicago, Chicago Recreation Commission, 1937. 268 pp., maps, charts.

The survey was a cooperative project of the Chicago Recreation Commission, Northwestern University, the Works Progress Administration, and the National Youth Administration. This first volume of the report covers planning and historical aspects, administration, facilities, and programs of public recreation.

Citizen leadership, lay and expert, and the problems of leisure: Third annual report of Chicago Recreation Commission. Chicago, 1937. 15 pp., illus.

Describes some of the recreation activities of the city, its master plan based on recreation surveys, and administration of the city-wide recreation project.

Play and recreation for children and adults—an educational program for more satisfactory living. By Caswell M. Miles. Albany, University of State of New York, 1937. 116 pp., illus. (Physical Education and Recreation Book VI.)

Intended as a guide to educational authorities in combining play and recreation activities with educational programs.

Relief Measures and Statistics

An experiment in reducing the cost of relief. By Ellery F. Reed. Chicago, American Public Welfare Association, 1937. 10 pp., chart.

The experiment reported upon was conducted from February to July 1936 by the Hamilton County Department of Welfare, Cincinnati, in one of its districts, in an effort to decrease the time that families needed to remain on the relief rolls.

Social Security

Social security for workers becomes a reality. By Arthur J. Altmeyer. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, December 1937, pp. 1–4; map.)

The administration of Federal grants to States. By V. O. Key, Jr. Chicago, Public Administration Service, 1937. xviii, 388 pp.

Descriptive analysis of experience under various Federal grants-in-aid to States for the promotion of national programs. The programs discussed include vocational education and rehabilitation, employment services, and the new social-security systems. Administrative techniques and procedures, including inspection, audit, and machinery for allocating and matching funds, are presented, and cooperating administrative structures within the Federal and State Governments are described. The study is "one of a series of studies of the administrative problems of the emerging social-security program in this country, which have been carried on under the auspices of the Committee on Public Administration of the Social Science Research Council."

Social insurance in Europe and social security in the United States—a comparative analysis. By Karl Pribram. (In International Labor Review, Geneva, December 1937, pp. 742–771.)

Die sozialversicherung im Dritten Reich. By Hans Engel and J. Eckert. Berlin, Beamtenpresse Gmbh., 1937. Various paging.

Deals with the status of social-insurance systems in Germany during the present regime.

Public social services (total expenditure under certain acts of Parliament). London, Treasury, 1937. 20 pp. (Cmd. 5609.)

Data include expenditures during 1935 or the latest available year, and estimated expenditures for 1936, on unemployment insurance, national health insurance, widows', orphans', and old-age pensions, education, housing, and direct relief, in England and Wales, and in Scotland.

Beretning fra Invalideforsikringsretten for aaret 1936. Copenhagen, 1937. 130 pp., pasters.

Report on operation of the Danish invalidity-pension system during 1936. An English summary and English translations of the text material in tables are furnished.

Technological Changes

Effects of mechanical changes in woolen and worsted industries, 1910 to 1936. By Boris Stern. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 36 pp., illus. (Serial No. R. 660, reprint from January 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

The use of office machinery and its influence on conditions of work for staff. (In International Labour Review, Geneva, October 1937, pp. 486–516; charts.)

Technological changes such as standardization accompanying mechanization are described and there is some analysis of the physiological, psychological, and social effects of the use of office machinery. There is also a classification of office machines. It is estimated that office employees have been less affected by depression than manual workers, but that displacements and difficulties of readjustment have been particularly serious in the case of skilled employees and those in the prime of life.

Unemployment Insurance and Relief

*Report of Unemployment Insurance Statutory Committee, Great Britain * * * on the draft unemployment insurance (insurable employments) regulations, 1937.* London, 1937. 14 pp.

Summary of Unemployment Insurance Acts, Great Britain, 1935 and 1936. London, Ministry of Labor, 1937. 32 pp.

Seventh annual report of Under Secretary, Department of Labor and Industry, Queensland, upon operations and proceedings under "The Income (Unemployment Relief) Tax Acts, 1930 to 1935," together with financial statements for year ended June 30, 1937. Brisbane, 1937. 83 pp.

Wages and Hours

Wages and hours in union bakeries, May 15, 1937. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 11 pp. (Serial No. R. 670, reprint from February 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

College salaries, 1936. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1937. 33 pp. (Bulletin, 1937, No. 9.)

A summary table from this pamphlet is reproduced in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Entrance rates of common laborers in 20 industries, July 1937. By Jacob Perlman and Edward K. Frazier. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 20 pp. (Serial No. R. 682, reprint from December 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Regional differences in cotton-textile wages, 1928–1937. By N. A. Tolles. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 12 pp. (Serial No. R. 689, reprint from January 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

The weaver's wage: Earnings and collective bargaining in Lancashire cotton weaving industry. By E. M. Gray. Manchester, England, Manchester University Press, 1937. 69 pp.

Earnings and hours in granite industry, August 1937. By J. Perlman, P. L. Jones, and O. R. Witmer. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 26 pp. (Serial No. R. 681, reprint from December 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Union scales of wages and hours in printing trades, May 15, 1937. By Joseph J. Senturia and Frank S. McElroy. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 18 pp. (Serial No. R. 683, reprint from December 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Wages and hours of union street-railway employees, 1937. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 8 pp. (Serial No. R. 693, reprint from January 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

Monthly salaries paid in 143 California cities as of June 1, 1937. San Francisco, League of California Municipalities, 1937. 26 pp.; mimeographed. (Report No. 12.)

Statistics on salaries for 6 cities with over 50,000 population are published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Wages and income in United Kingdom since 1860. By A. L. Bowley. Cambridge, University Press, 1937. 151 pp.; bibliography.

Summarizes a large number of studies of wages and income made by the author over a period of 40 years. The studies indicate that average money wages when adjusted to cost of living increased about 40 percent between 1880 and 1913. Wages were about 40 percent of the total income in 1880 and about 38.5 percent of the total income in 1913. Average wages, when adjusted to the cost of living, rose after the World War, but the author states that "it does not seem practicable to give any definite measurement of the change of the average standard of living in the circumstances of recent years." There is much information regarding statistical methods and sources, and a bibliography, consisting mainly of the author's own writings.

Tipping as a factor in wages. By Rae L. Needleman. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 20 pp. (Serial No. R. 673, reprint from December 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Wage methods in retailing. By Otho J. Hicks. (In Personnel Journal, New York, December 1937, pp. 206–211.)

According to this article, the mass of workers at the present time are more interested in job security and regular income than in plans involving a fixed minimum with an opportunity to earn additional pay under incentive systems, especially the quota-bonus system.

Multiple-shift operation. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1937. 4 pp. (Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 3.)

Reviewed in this issue.

Chemical industry: Memorandum on practicability and desirability of an international reduction of working hours in chemical industries. Amsterdam, International Federation of General Factory Workers, 1936. 21 pp.

International reduction of hours in the chemical industry is viewed as practicable and desirable because of the prevalence of great international cartels or trusts in the industry, the influence of these organizations on prices and industrial policies, the comparatively small share of wages in cost of production, the large proportion of unskilled workers, and the existence of conditions of work likely to involve risk or impairment of health.

Youth Problems

The adult minor. By William R. George. New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937. xxv, 192 pp.

An appeal and a plan for the training of youth in political, economic, and social responsibility. The author, founder of The George Junior Republic at Freeville, N. Y., reports on this experiment and also on the junior-municipality plans which have been promoted.

The prospect for youth. Edited by James H. S. Bossard and W. Wallace Weaver. (In The Annals, American Academy of Political and Social Science, Philadelphia, November 1937, Vol. 194, pp. 1–216; bibliography.)

The articles in this issue of The Annals have been brought together by the Academy of Political and Social Science for the purpose of focusing attention upon youth problems and facilitating their intelligent consideration. In many of the papers reference is made to labor aspects of youth problems, such as restricted work opportunities, severity of unemployment among young people, activities of junior placement services, and vocational guidance. The Civilian Conservation Corps program and European labor services are also reviewed.

General Reports

Third annual report of Central Statistical Board, July 1, 1936, to June 30, 1937. Washington, 1937. 20 pp.

Reviewed in this issue.

Second annual report of Department of Labor of Alabama, [fiscal year ending September 30, 1937]. Montgomery, 1937. 87 pp.

Reviews the work of the department and presents statistics of strikes and lockouts, industrial accidents, employment service, child labor, and number of gainfully occupied persons (1929–36) by county.

Activities of West Virginia Department of Labor. By C. L. Jarrett. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, January 1938, pp. 10, 11.)

Report on phases of employment conditions in Canadian industry. Ottawa, National Employment Commission, 1937. 67 pp. (In English and French.)

A compilation of statistics, from 7,725 firms, dealing with employment, hours of work per week, seasonality in employment, hiring practices, employee housing, pension plans, sick leave and holidays with pay, and various plans for benefit of employees. Data on maximum hiring ages, from the report, are published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Anuario general de estadística, 1936. Bogotá, Contraloría General, Dirección Nacional de Estadística, 1937. 600 pp., maps.

Data for Colombia are given on number and wages of railway workers; persons employed in industry, by nationality and sex; public lands allotted to colonists; market prices of various articles of food, by city; wages and cost of food of agricultural workers, by locality; wages of workers in various occupations in the principal industrial cities; industrial accidents; and consumers' cooperatives.

Suomen tilastollinen vuosikirja, 1937. Helsinki, Tilastollisessa Päätoimistossa, 1937. 394 pp.

General statistical annual issued by the Central Statistical Bureau of Finland, including statistics on industrial accidents, accident insurance, public assistance, strikes and lockouts, work of employment offices, membership in labor organizations, wages of agricultural workers and workers on the state railways, prices, and cost of living. The data on prices and cost of living and on work of employment offices are brought down to early 1937; on the other topics mentioned the figures are for varying periods up to 1936.

Printed in Finnish and Swedish with French translations of table of contents and most of the table heads.

Jahresberichte der gewerbeaufsichtsbeamten und bergbehörden für die jahre 1935 und 1936. Berlin, Reichs- und Preussischen Arbeitsministerium, 1937. Various paging.

Report on factory inspection in Germany during 1935 and 1936. Information is given on protective labor legislation, accident and disease prevention, sanitation, rest periods, overtime, night and holiday work, home work, apprenticeship, wages, unemployment, relief work, housing, labor courts, etc.

A survey of the social structure of England and Wales as illustrated by statistics. By A. M. Carr-Saunders and D. Caradog Jones. Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1937. xviii, 235 pp. 2d ed.

This work was first published in 1927 largely as a summary and interpretation of the census of 1921. The present edition, which makes use of the census of 1931 and various other sources, furnishes a large variety of information. Among the subjects included are housing, occupations, trade unions and other workers' associations, income, state provision against misfortune, and extent of poverty and of relief provided.

Census of industrial production [Irish Free State]. Dublin, Department of Industry and Commerce, 1937. 85 pp.

Data include number of salaried workers and wage earners, with total salaries and wages, in selected industries, in each year from 1932 to 1935, inclusive.

Statistisk-økonomisk oversikt over året 1937. Oslo, Statistiske Centralbyrå, 1938. 86 pp., charts.

Reviews economic conditions in Norway in 1937, including prices and unemployment. A French translation of the table of contents is supplied.

Official year book of Union of South Africa and of Basutoland, Bechuanaland Protectorate, and Swaziland, 1937. Pretoria, Office of Census and Statistics, 1937. 1326 pp., maps.

Among the topics covered are wages, employment, work of employment offices, unemployment insurance and relief, trade-union membership, apprenticeship, prices, housing, cooperative societies, and miners' phthisis and compensation therefor. The data are for 1936 and earlier years. There are also synopses of parliamentary legislation from 1933 to 1936, including labor and social legislation.

Personnel and labor relations. By Dale Yoder. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938. xix, 644 pp.

The subjects treated include sources of labor supply, education and training, hours of work, wage-payment plans, wage policies, industrial health, employment stabilization, causes of unstable employment, employee representation, and collective bargaining.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1938